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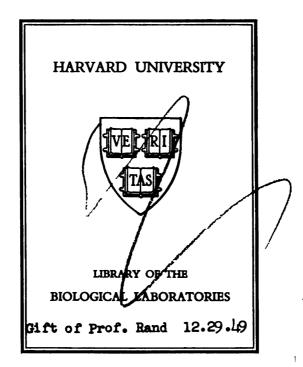
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Ecology

YEARBOOK

OF THE

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

1917



WASHINGTON, GOVERNMENT, PRINTING OFFICE 1918

BIOLOGICAL LABORATORIES LIBRARY HARVARD UNIVERSITY

[CHAPTER 23, STAT. L., 1895.]

[AN ACT Providing for the public printing and binding and the distribution of public documents.]

Section 73, paragraph 2:

The Annual Report of the Secretary of Agriculture shall hereafter be submitted and printed in two parts, as follows: Part One, which shall contain purely business and executive matter which it is necessary for the Secretary to submit to the President and Congress; Part Two, which shall contain such reports from the different Bureaus and Divisions, and such papers prepared by their special agents, accompanied by suitable illustrations, as shall, in the opinion of the Secretary, be specially suited to interest and instruct the farmers of the country, and to include a general report of the operations of the Department for their information. There shall be printed of Part One, one thousand copies for the Senate, two thousand copies for the House, and three thousand copies for the Department of Agriculture; and of Part Two, one hundred and ten thousand copies for the use of the Senate, three hundred and sixty thousand copies for the use of the House of Representatives, and thirty thousand copies for the use of the Department of Agriculture, the illustrations for the same to be executed under the supervision of the Public Printer, in accordance with directions of the Joint Committee on Printing, said illustrations to be subject to the approval of the Secretary of Agriculture; and the title of each of the said parts shall be such as to show that such part is complete in itself.

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Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, RAYMOND A. PEARSON.¹

Assistant to the Secretary, FLOYD R. HARRISON.

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Federal Horticultural Board, C. L. MARLATT, Chairman.

¹ These positions were created by the food production act for the period of the war.

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YEARBOOK OF THE U.S.DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE.

Washington, D. C., November 15, 1917.

SIR: When, on April 6, 1917, the existence of a state of war with Germany was declared by Congress, this country was facing an unsatisfactory situation in respect to its supply of foods and feedstuffs. The production in 1916 of the leading cereals, corn, wheat, oats, barley, rye, buckwheat, rice, and kafirs was comparatively low, aggregating 4,806,-000,000 bushels, as against 6,010,000,000 for 1915, 4,983,000,-000 for 1914, and 4,884,000,000 the annual average for 1910-1914. The wheat crop of 1916 especially was strikingly small. It was only 639,886,000 bushels, as compared with the record production for 1915 of 1,026,000,000, with 891,000,000 for 1914, and with the average for the five years 1910-1914 of 728,000,000. It was certain, too, that on account of adverse weather conditions, the output of winter wheat for 1917 would be greatly curtailed. The world production of wheat for 1916 also was unsatisfactory, and the prospects for the ensuing year were not good. The situation was no better in respect to another conspicuously important food commodity, the Irish potato. The yield of this crop for 1916 in the United States was only 285,437,000 bushels, while for 1915 and 1914, respectively, it was 359,721,000 and 409,921,000. For the period 1910-1914 it averaged 360,772,000.

Even in normal times public attention fixes itself particularly on the supply of wheat and potatoes. In time of war it does so much more intensely, especially on the supply of wheat, which is peculiarly important from a military point of view. Because of their shortage here and elsewhere and of the large foreign demand, apprehension and, in some quarters, hysteria developed. The supply of meats and of poultry and dairy products was somewhat larger than in the years immediately preceding, but the foreign demand was great and increasing and exports were steadily rising. It was obvious that the supply of feedstuffs would not be normally abundant, and that it would be difficult to maintain the usual number of live stock and practically impossible within a reasonable time to increase it. Then, too, competitive purchasing by foreign agencies on a large scale of all food products was prevalent, and manipulation and speculation were rife. Prices were mounting rapidly and conditions of living were becoming more difficult.

INITIAL EFFORTS TO INCREASE PRODUCTION.

It was recognized even before the war that the food problem was serious and that constructive action was necessary. This Department accordingly had taken steps to allay unnecessary apprehension, to promote economy and thrift, to secure fuller conservation of farm products and of foods, and to insure increased production of all essential agricultural commodities. The many agricultural agencies of the Nation began to direct attention to these problems and to cooperate effectively with the Department. The increased need of this Nation and of the world for food from our farms and the importance of greatly increasing production were emphasized. In the South, in particular, where effective work had been done for years to secure a diversified agriculture and greatly to increase yields of staple commodities and where unusual opportunities to increase food products were presented, a special campaign was conducted by the Department in cooperation with agricultural colleges and other agencies, with the effective aid of the daily press, agricultural journals, farmers' associations, bankers, and

other business men. Many pertinent bulletins and circulars were distributed. The farm-demonstration machinery was fully utilized. More energetic action everywhere was taken to combat plant and animal diseases.

In January, 1917, appeals were sent to the South to help feed the Nation, to supply its own necessities so far as possible, and to produce a surplus of foodstuffs. It was urged especially that each farm family make a home garden, plant enough corn to last the family and the live stock for a year, raise sufficient oats and other small grain to supplement the corn, as well as the necessary hay and forage crops for the live stock, and produce the meat, poultry, and dairy products required by the family; and also to devote adequate attention to cotton as the main money crop.

In February special emphasis was laid on the necessity of raising beet seed on a large scale to make certain a larger supply of sugar beets. It was pointed out that before the war the beet-sugar industry had been almost wholly dependent on Europe for its seed supply, and that superior seed could be produced in this country, which could be further improved by selection and breeding. About the same time a warning was issued to cattle owners to make arrangements for the proper feeding of their cattle until spring, in order to prevent heavy losses in breeding animals. In each instance suggestions as to the methods to be followed were offered.

In March it became certain that a large percentage of wheat in the West and Pacific Northwest had been winter-killed. Information as to the course to be pursued was issued to the farmers of the winter-wheat section. It was suggested that where the crop had been not more than half killed it might be advisable to let the remainder grow, but that some other food crop should be started without delay.

In the meantime, I had appointed a committee of specialists of the department to study the whole agricultural

situation and to make recommendations. On the 27th of March I issued a statement urging farmers to adopt measures to secure maximum returns from the farms. Special attention was directed to the necessity of careful seed selection, of controlling plant and animal diseases, and of conserving farm products through proper storage, canning, drying, and preserving. On the 5th of April a special plea was made for an increased production of corn and hogs, and on the 7th of April I appealed to the farmers to increase the output of staple commodities as well as of perishables.

THE ST. LOUIS CONFERENCE.

On April 4, two days before a state of war with Germany was declared, I telegraphed to the State commissioners of agriculture and presidents of the land-grant colleges—the official agricultural representatives of the several States-inviting them to a conference in St. Louis on April 9 and 10, 1917. Editors of farm journals were asked to meet at the same place on April 11. It was thought to be highly desirable to secure the views of the official agricultural representatives of the States and of other leaders of agricultural opinion. There was a generous response to the invitation. Very many of the State commissioners of agriculture and representatives of nearly all the agricultural colleges east of the Rocky Mountains were present at the two days' meeting. Sixty-five officials represented 32 States. On the third day about 75 representatives of the agricultural press were present. A similar conference for the States west of the Rocky Mountains was held at my request at Berkeley, Cal., on April 13, under the leadership of President Benjamin Ide Wheeler, of the University of California.

At the St. Louis conference the entire agricultural situation presented by the emergency was thoroughly discussed. The major problems considered were the production of

sufficient foods and feedstuffs not only for this country but also for the nations of Europe with which we are associated in this war, the conservation of farm products and of foods, the mobilization of farm labor, the regulation of storage and distributing agencies, and the further organization of all the Nation's agricultural instrumentalities-National, State, and local. A comprehensive program for execution under existing law and for additional legislation was unanimously adopted. This program was communicated to the Berkeley conference, which concurred in it. It is noteworthy that in two days the agricultural leaders of the country drew up a program the wisdom of the essential features of which has not been successfully questioned and the substantial part of which has been embodied in the Food Production and Food Control Acts. The prompt and effective handling of the situation was made possible by reason of the fact that the American people, generations before, had wisely laid the foundations of many agricultural institutions and had increasingly liberally supported their agricultural agencies. The Nation was fortunate in having had in existence for many years, for the purpose of promoting scientific and practical agriculture, its Federal Department of Agriculture, and a department of agriculture and a land-grant college in each State, as well as great farmers' organizations. It is interesting to note that two of these agencies, the Federal department and the land-grant colleges, had their National official recognition and their real origin in another period of stress-in 1862-in two acts of Congress approved by Abraham Lincoln.

It was recognized as of special importance that the views and cooperation of the great farmers' organizations of the Nation and of leading individual farmers be secured. I therefore invited representative farmers to come to Washington on April 23 to give advice and to make recommendations. They included mainly officials of the National

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Grange, the Farmers' Educational and Cooperative Union, the Gleaners, and the Farmers' National Congress. The American Society of Equity was invited to send a representative. It was unable to do so, but proffered its cooperation. At this conference the agricultural problems confronting the Nation were again thoroughly canvassed. In general, the suggestions and recommendations officially made to the Senate in my communication of April 18 were indorsed.

ORGANIZATION. ·

In the meantime, pending action by Congress, the Federal Department of Agriculture, the State departments, the landgrant colleges, and other agencies actively devoted their attention to the immediate task in hand. Working in close cooperation with one another and with the farmers' organizations throughout the Nation, they immediately took steps to execute that part of the plan which had reference to a more perfect organization and coordination of the Nation's agricultural activities. The task was promptly undertaken of promoting in each State, in connection with the State council of safety, the organization of a small central division of food production and conservation composed of representatives of the State board of agriculture, of the land-grant college, of farmers' organizations, and of business agencies. It was suggested also that similar bodies should be provided for each local subdivision, and all were requested to devote their energies to the problem of increasing the production and conservation of food supplies and of promoting more orderly and economical marketing. Copies of the recommendations of the St. Louis conference and of those made to the Senate on April 18 were sent to the Governor of each State. It was urged that attention be given immediately to the perfecting of agricultural organizations along the lines indicated.

INAUGURATION OF FOOD ADMINISTRATION.

As a further step in organization, the Council of National Defense on April 5 invited Mr. Herbert Hoover to return to this country to advise with the council in reference to the domestic handling of food supplies and the most effective ways of assisting the European nations with which we are cooperating to satisfy their food necessities. Subsequently, on May 20, after the Food Production and Food Control bills had been outlined substantially in the form in which they were finally adopted, the President issued a statement indicating that he had asked Mr. Hoover to undertake the important task of food administration. The purposes of the proposed Food Administration and the necessity for it were set forth. It was stated that a sharp distinction would be drawn between the normal and emergency activities of the Government represented in the Department of Agriculture in reference to food production, conservation, and marketing on the one hand, and the special activities necessitated by the war relating to the regulation of food distribution and consumption on the other. "All measures," it was explained, "intended directly to extend the normal activities of the Department of Agriculture in reference to the production, conservation, and the marketing of farm crops will be administered, as in normal times, through that department, and the powers asked for (in the Food Control bill) over distribution and consumption, over exports, imports, prices, purchase and requisition of commodities, storing, and the like which may require regulation during the war will be placed in the hands of a Commissioner of Food Administration appointed by the President and directly responsible to him."

On June 12 the President, in a letter to Mr. Hoover, expressed the opinion that the inauguration of that portion of the plan for food administration which contemplates a National mobilization of the great voluntary forces of the

country which are ready to work toward saving food and eliminating waste admitted of no further delay. It was pointed out that while in many ways it would be desirable to await complete legislation establishing the Food Administration, it seemed that, so far as volunteer effort could be assembled, there should be immediate action. Accordingly, Mr. Hoover was authorized to proceed in this direction at once.

LEGISLATION.

In compliance with a resolution of the Senate, on April 18 I transmitted to it certain proposals for increasing the production, improving the distribution, and promoting the conservation of farm products and foods. The suggestions were based in large measure upon the program adopted at the St. Louis and Berkelev conferences. The Committee on Agriculture in each House soon afterward took the matter in hand, held extensive hearings, and finally formulated two measures. In the preparation of these, there were two leading thoughts in mind. One was to speed up and add to the activities of the Federal Department of Agriculture and its cooperating forces, so that they might attack aggressively the larger problems of production, conservation of farm and ranch products, home economics, and farm marketing. The other was to vest in the President regulatory powers, in considerable part of a commercial nature, to be exercised through an emergency agency rather than through any existing department, to deal with special and urgent Na tional and international food problems growing out of the war. After an extended debate the two bills—the Food Production and the Food Control-were passed by Congress and approved by the President on August 10. Immediately upon the approval of the Food Control act, Mr. Hoover was formally appointed Food Administrator to execute the provisions of the act as far as they relate to food and feedstuffs.

THE FOOD PRODUCTION ACT.

The Food Production Act—"an act to provide further for the national security and defense by stimulating agriculture and facilitating the distribution of agricultural products" is administered by the Department of Agriculture, and carries an appropriation of \$11,346,400 for the following purposes:

- 1. The prevention, control, and eradication of the diseases and pests of live stock; the enlargement of live-stock production; and the conservation and utilization of meat, poultry, dairy, and other animal products, \$885,000.
- 2. Procuring, storing, and furnishing seeds for cash at cost to farmers in restricted areas where emergency conditions prevail, \$2,500,000.
- 3. The prevention, control, and eradication of insects and plant diseases injurious to agriculture, and the conservation and utilization of plant products, \$441,000.
- 4. The further development of the Extension Service which is conducted in cooperation with the agricultural colleges in the various States, \$4,848,400.
- 5. Surveys of the food supply of the United States, gathering and disseminating information concerning farm products, extending and enlarging the market news services, preventing waste of food in storage, in transit, or held for sale, giving advice concerning the market movement or distribution of perishable products, and investigating and certifying to shippers the condition as to soundness of fruits, vegetables, and other food products received at important central markets, \$2,522,000.
- 6. The development of the information work of the Department, enlarging the facilities for dealing with the farmlabor problem, and extending the work of the Bureaus of Crop Estimates and Chemistry, \$650,000.

While the Food Production bill was pending in Congress, detailed plans were formulated for carrying out its pro-29190°—YBK 1917——2 visions as soon as it should become law. The Department therefore was ready to proceed promptly and effectively with their execution.

RELATION TO FOOD ADMINISTRATION.

It was apparent that the Food Production and the Food Control Acts dealt with very closely related matters, that effective cooperation between the Department of Agriculture and the Food Administration was essential, and that needless duplication of effort should be avoided. It was recognized that the relation between the two agencies was intimate and fundamental; that it was impossible completely to disassociate them and undesirable to do so. After a full conference a satisfactory working agreement was reached.

In a broad way, the Food Administration has as its prime functions the control and regulation of the commerical distribution of foods and feedstuffs, that is, of products which have reached the markets and are in the channels of distribution or in the hands of consumers, their conservation by consumers, and the elimination of waste, through the employment of regular official as well as volunteer agencies.

The Department of Agriculture continues to administer the laws placed under its jurisdiction and to direct its activities in reference to production. It also continues to make the investigations authorized by Congress and to furnish assistance to farmers and live-stock men in the marketing of their products; to stimulate organization among producers for the distribution of their products to the markets; and to promote the conservation of farm and animal products, especially of perishables through canning, drying, preserving, pickling, and the like. It retains its work in home economics, as provided by law, and cooperates in this field as heretofore with the agricultural colleges, through the Extension Service. It directs all these undertakings in greatly expanded form under the authority and with the

funds provided by the Food Production Act. In their promotion it utilizes its own official machinery and enlists the aid of volunteers.

In the main, the Department of Agriculture deals with all the processes of farming and follows the products through the markets to the point where they are available, and are in requisite form, for actual consumption. It aids in these processes through investigation, advice, and demonstration; only in the case of certain products and processes has itregulatory authority. The Food Administration, however, has wide powers of regulation and direction of food materials and food products. Where the Food Administration through its powers can be of assistance to the Department of Agriculture in its field, it is at liberty freely to make suggestions, and, when necessary, to cooperate in execution; and the same relation obtains as to the Department's participation in Food Administration matters in which it has a vital interest and toward the promotion of which it can be of assistance.

ADDITIONAL MACHINERY DEVELOPED.

It early became apparent that there would be no little delay in framing and passing the necessary legislation. Time was the essence of the situation. Prompt action was necessary. It was essential that many of the recommendations included in the St. Louis program should be put into effect. Farmers already were in the field or had made their plans for the season. The Department and the State agencies therefore speeded up their work along the most promising lines with the forces and funds at their command. Projects not having an immediate bearing on the emergency were set aside in order that the energies of the workers might be concentrated on the main problems.

Assuming that Congress would enact, in part at least, the legislation desired to stimulate production and to promote

conservation, the Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with the land-grant colleges, undertook the preliminary work of developing additional machinery and agencies; and, in a number of States, these additional agencies, including especially an extension of the farm demonstration force, actually were put into operation.

It was recognized that the Cooperative Extension System, with its combination of Federal and State administrative officers and specialists, county agents, home-demonstration agents, farm bureaus, and other local organizations, furnished a ready and effective means for the Nation-wide dissemination of the needed facts, as well as for practical demonstrations of the best methods of increasing agricultural production and securing the most economical utilization of the products of the farm. With remarkable promptness and unanimity, these agencies addressed themselves to the important problems of increasing and conserving the food supply and cordially furthered the Department's efforts in this direction. Fortunately, as the result of the investigations and experiments of the Department and of the State experiment stations, extending over many years, there was already available a large accumulation of scientific information ready to be put into practical use.

To supplement the work of the county agents, special pains were taken further to enlist the services of the specialists of the Department and of the land-grant colleges. They serve as the connecting link between the research workers and the Extension Divisions of the several States. The efforts of each specialist were directed immediately toward methods of food production and conservation. For example, the crop specialist centered his efforts on questions of soil improvement and profitable rotations for food and feed production, the horticultural specialist sought especially to increase the planting and yield of vegetables, and the animal-husbandry specialist assisted in the formation of pig clubs, baby-beef

clubs, and poultry clubs, and in disseminating information concerning egg and poultry production.

EXTENSION WORK EXPANDED.

An appropriation of \$4,348,400 was made by the Food Production Act for the further development of the Extension Service. By the end of October more than 1,600 emergency demonstration agents, men and women, had been appointed, making a total of approximately 5,000 cooperative extension workers, including the specialists performing extension work, employed through both State and Federal regular and emergency funds. This number will be further increased as soon as men and women with the requisite training and experience can be secured. Nearly 750 additional counties are cooperating with the Department under the Food Production Act in employing county agents. The total number of men in the service now acting as county agents is about 2,000, and many district agents have been designated to supervise their activities. About 1,300 State, district, county, and urban women home-demonstration agents are now at work. Of the 600 women now employed as emergency agents under the Food Production Act, 500 are working in counties, principally among farm women, and 100 have been assigned exclusively to urban communities. Over 100 additional assistants in boys' and girls' club work have been placed in the field.

When the plans are fully developed there will be at least one demonstration agent—possibly two, a man and a woman—in nearly every agricultural county in the Nation, and a woman in each of the large cities of the country to give advice regarding the production, conservation, and utilization of food products. These agents not only are performing the normal and emergency demonstration and educational work, but they are also assisting other branches of the Government in special directions, such as the Treasury De-

partment in its Liberty loan campaigns and the Food Administration in its food-conservation activities.

LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS DEVELOPED.

Conditions growing out of the war gave added impetus to the already well-established policy of extending and promoting local organizations to support, aid, and extend the influence of the county-agent work. The number of such organizations was rapidly increased throughout the coun-In the 15 Southern States the number of community organizations of farmers formed to aid the county agents increased from 1,654, with a membership of 44,548, to 2,508, with a membership of 78,660. As in the South, so in the North and West, impetus was given to the organization movement already under way, and there has been an emphatic demonstration of the increased usefulness of the county agent when backed by a supporting local organization. In the 33 Northern and Western States the number of farm bureaus and similar local organizations was increased to 374, with a membership of 98,654.

Many thousands of farmers throughout the country were shown how to increase their producing power and place their farms on a business basis, with the result that their farm practice has been better balanced, soil fertility has been maintained, and production has been increased.

There was a notable development of the work among women along the line of productive activities, such as poultry raising, home butter making, gardening, and canning, and of household convenience, comfort, economy, and efficiency. The number of community clubs organized among rural women in the South increased from 250 to 1,042, and 1,635,000 women and girls actually participated in some form of emergency work.

The enrollment in the regular boys' clubs in the South was largely increased, and the total membership is now approx-

imately 100,000. In addition, 20,000 boys were enrolled to assist in war emergency activities. These clubs have been a very important factor in the campaigns for improved farming and increased food production. The boys' and girls' clubs in the Northern and Western States, through their regular membership of 406,000 and an additional emergency enrollment of 400,000, drawn largely from cities and towns, have been an active and efficient agency in the campaigns for promoting food production and conservation, not only through such regular work as canning, drying, pickling, preserving, and the like, but also through various emergency projects, such as gardening, poultry raising, bread making, and other activities.

HOME GARDENING STIMULATED.

Special attention was directed to the importance of home gardens in all parts of the Nation. A series of 27 brief popular articles containing instructions for the preparation of soil, for garden planting, and for the care of vegetables was prepared and distributed. A special Farmers' Bulletin, The Small Vegetable Garden, was quickly printed and more than a million copies were promptly distributed. Throughout the growing season the Department continued to supply the press regularly with practical timely information designed to encourage a second and even a third crop of vegetables. This campaign, supported by the efforts of county agents, other field workers of the Department, the staffs of the agricultural colleges, and private workers, stimulated, it is estimated, the planting of from two hundred to three hundred per cent more gardens than had ever before produced food in the United States in one season. This was particularly true in the South, where the work was a logical development of the "Safe Farming" program which has been advocated for several years.

SAVING FARM PRODUCTS AND FOODS.

The home-demonstration activities were immediately intensified. Early in the summer all home-economics extension workers turned aside from their regular activities and aided in special campaigns for food conservation. Canning, drying, salting, and storing were emphasized in every State, and special stress was laid upon the importance of using perishable products in such a way that the home might support itself and make as little demand as possible on the transportation facilities for supplies from other sections of the country. Many demonstrations were given on methods of conserving wheat, sugar, fats, and the like. Excessive use of butter, meats, and sugars was discouraged and the use of substitutes was taught. Definite conservation campaigns were undertaken through the daily and weekly papers; many women's clubs were organized for the sole purpose of promoting home-economics extension work; community kitchens and community drying plants were increased in number and efficiency; many educational exhibits were made; and short and intensive training courses were held in 10 agricultural colleges for the preparation of emergency food agents and local volunteer workers.

The Department gave particular attention to problems of selecting and combining foods in such manner that the diet would be satisfactory and adequate and at the same time the consumption of commodities in which there was a shortage would be reduced. Data derived from experimental work on the rational and economical use of foods were promptly made available. A simple method for applying the results of the food investigations in a practical way was worked out and published.

To enlist the women of the Nation in a food-saving campaign, attention was called on March 8 to the fact that at least \$700,000,000 worth of food was being wasted annually in the United States. Subsequently, six separate appeals to

the people to feed themselves, to watch kitchen waste, to prevent spoilage, and to conserve meat, milk, butter, and bread were issued through the press. These were followed by more than 65 simple circulars dealing with the effective use of foods and with economical and nourishing diets. Special efforts were made through press items to familiarize the Nation with the use of such foods as corn, rice, soy beans, rye, various legumes, cottage cheese, and skimmed milk. Many of the articles thus prepared were published as Food Thrift Series Nos. 1 to 5 and reached a direct circulation of more than a million and a quarter.

The services of an expert in home economics were placed at the disposal of the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense, and the Department has cooperated with the committee in many directions. Jointly with the Food Administration, a series of leaflets on foods, designed especially for extension workers in home economics, was prepared. As a part of the general survey of the food resources of the country a dietary survey of selected families in different parts of the United States was undertaken. Dietary studies also were made in selected families of the District of Columbia as a part of the study of living conditions carried on by the Department of Labor.

CONSERVATION OF PERISHABLES.

When it became apparent that the truck farms, home gardens, and orchards of the Nation would produce a large surplus, the Department, supplementing the activities of the extension forces and aided by a large number of emergency agents, conducted an intensive publicity campaign, under the immediate direction of a special assistant, to promote the canning, preserving, pickling, and drying of surplus perishables and to stimulate the consumption of fresh fruits and vegetables. Mr. A. D. Lasker, of Chicago, and Mr. John Callan O'Laughlin, of Washington, D. C., volunteered to or-

ganize and supervise the work for the Department. Practically every newspaper in the 28 States which reported a heavy surplus agreed to devote space to the campaign. Within two weeks 110 articles teaching in a brief, simple way the household methods of conserving fruits and vegetables were supplied to the newspapers and promptly published by them. Special Farmers' Bulletins dealing with these subjects were quickly prepared and circulated to the number of 3,400,000 copies. The response to this campaign was immediate. Not only were perishables put up for winter use in greatly enlarged quantities, but the increased consumption, stimulated by the campaign, steadied the truck markets and undoubtedly prevented a considerable waste of valuable foodstuffs. In this way also the drain on the staple products was lessened. While there is no way of determining accurately how much food was put up in individual homes for later use, there is every reason to believe that thousands of families canned and preserved perishable products this year for the first time.

Steps had been taken early in the year to make sure, that there would be a sufficient supply of containers. The price of tin cans had increased to such an extent as practically to prohibit their use by the individual canner. At the suggestion of the Departments of Commerce and Agriculture manufacturers agreed to restrict the canning of nonperishable foods for several months in order to conserve the supply for perishable products. The States Relations Service also, in cooperation with the Bureau of Chemistry, the Council of National Defense, railroads, and manufacturers of tin cans, perfected an arrangement by which more than 10,000,000 cans were shipped in carload lots from certain factories direct to counties in the South and sold at cost, plus freight and handling charges. The net saving through this activity alone is estimated at more than a quarter of a million dollars.

MARKETING ACTIVITIES.

The work of the Bureau of Markets was greatly expanded. The market news service for fruits and vegetables, inaugurated during the fiscal year 1915, as well as that for live stock and meats, which was begun in the fiscal year 1917, was developed as rapidly as possible with available funds. Many of the projects of the Bureau were redirected in order to deal more effectively with emergency problems. The reports were particularly valuable in connection with the shipment of perishable products, and large numbers took advantage of the timely information furnished by them. During the fiscal year 1917 approximately 3,000,000 bulletins regarding car-lot shipments and jobbing prices of fruits and vegetables were distributed to over 52,000 individuals, including shippers, jobbers, distributors, and receivers. Market reporting stations were opened during the year at several important points, and the number of commodities covered was greatly increased. The first quarterly report of the supply of wool was issued on July 30 and represents the most complete inventory ever compiled of the wool supply in the United States. The reporting service for cold-storage holdings was rapidly enlarged and now includes 43 commodities.

From representatives stationed at important transfer points during harvest periods the Bureau of Markets secured telegraphic information on the car situation. These reports made it possible to place before the Commission on Car Service accurate information regarding the prospective movement of different crops and the need for cars. The Bureau also, through all available channels, has endeavored to secure close cooperation between carriers and producers, shippers and distributors in the more efficient utilization of railroad equipment used in transporting food products.

MARKET NEWS SERVICES EXTENDED.

The passage of the Food Production Act made possible a marked expansion of the machinery of the Bureau of Markets. An appropriation of \$2,522,000 was provided for this purpose. The news services for fruits and vegetables and for live stock and meats were still further developed and were extended to include hay, grain, and seeds, and dairy and poultry products. Three general reporting services, one daily and two weekly, are conducted for perishables at 25 stations, as well as a local service for truck crops in certain cities.

Branch offices are now maintained at twelve important market centers for the purpose of collecting and distributing current information relative to supplies of live stock and meats, demands, prices, and other market conditions. Two daily and one monthly report for live stock and meats are issued. Data on wholesale meat trade conditions are secured daily from several of the largest eastern meat consuming and distributing centers, and a summary is immediately forwarded to the central live-stock markets in the West. Bulletins also are issued at the various branch offices before the day's trading in live stock begins, and this information is distributed throughout the United States. More than 60 stockyard companies report their current live-stock receipts and shipments, and a summary of the figures is issued after the first of each month.

Biweekly reports are made on hay and grain for certain sections. A semiweekly statement of bean prices, demand, and movement is made, and plans have been completed for issuing one each month on farm and garden seeds. Reports of daily car-lot shipments and jobbing prices of fruits and vegetables, as well as weekly summaries of car-lot shipments and a weekly market review, are made. Data on the carload movements of fruits and vegetables and of live stock, em-

bracing returns from approximately 1,000 officials, are telegraphed daily by more than 400 different railroads.

A cooperative experimental reporting service was begun early in the year in the large wholesale farmers' market at Providence, R. I., on fruits and vegetables grown in the neighborhood. This service is conducted in cooperation with local truck-gardeners' associations and the city authorities. It has demonstrated its usefulness in stabilizing local prices, and has been extended, under the Food Production Act, to the markets at Boston and Springfield, Mass.; Albany, N. Y.; Cleveland, Ohio; Grand Rapids, Mich.; St. Paul, Minn., and Denver, Colorado.

INSPECTION OF FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

The Food Production Act authorizes the Secretary of Agriculture to investigate and certify to shippers the condition as to soundness of fruits and vegetables and other food products when received at important central markets. Rules and regulations for carrying out this provision of the act were published on October 31, and the inspection service was inaugurated promptly in 24 of the large markets. This impartial and disinterested inspection service should lessen the uncertainty surrounding the marketing of perishables and stimulate economical production.

EMERGENCY FOOD AND FERTILIZER SURVEYS.

The most difficult undertakings of the Bureau of Markets under the Food Production Act are the war emergency food surveys. A preliminary survey, as of August 31, 1917, was planned and set in operation. This will be followed by one in more detail after the crops are gathered. The information sought covers 18 of the more important farm products and foods, in some instances groups of products, and falls into four heads, based on location and ownership, as follows: (1) Quantities of raw food products on the farms;

(2) stocks of food products nearer the consumption stage in manufacturing, storing, jobbing, wholesale, large retail, and other commercial establishments; (3) stocks in retail houses, particularly in the small establishments; and (4) supplies of food in the household and current family consumption. The latter survey will embrace many more items.

A determination of the quantity of food products on farms, particularly of cereals, live stock, and poultry, has been made by the Bureau of Crop Estimates. The holdings of manufacturing, storing, jobbing, wholesale, and other commercial establishments, including large retail houses, have been ascertained by the Bureau of Markets directly from each concern. Owing to the impossibility of covering all the smaller retail concerns, the survey, so far as these were concerned, was limited to the establishments in a number of representative cities and rural districts and was conducted by personal canvass instead of by mail. From the data secured the aggregate for the entire country will be estimated. Similarly, the supplies of food actually in the households will be determined by ascertaining the stocks in a large number of homes, and the returns will be checked by a careful record of the quantities of food purchased and consumed in them during the period of one week.

The Food Production Act provides also for the investigation of basic facts relating to fertilizers. An effort is being made to secure accurate information regarding the supply of fertilizer materials on hand, the probable production and consumption, and other pertinent facts. A special inquiry has been made through the Extension Service to ascertain the immediate requirements of farmers for nitrate of soda.

CONTROL OF PLANT DISEASES AND INSECTS.

Immediately after the outbreak of the war, the Bureaus of Plant Industry and Entomology directed their attention to plant diseases and insect pests and rendered very effective assistance with the resources at their command. With the additional funds made available by the Food Production Act, specialists of the Bureau of Plant Industry, familiar with the possibilities of seed treatment for the prevention of smuts of wheat, barley, oats, and rye, which alone cause losses of fifty to sixty million dollars a year, were placed in Oregon, Ohio, New York, Tennessee, Indiana, Illinois, Oklahoma, Texas, Washington, and California. These specialists conducted an active campaign to reduce these losses. Through cooperation with the county agents, farmers, farmers' organizations, and county and township schools, detailed suggestions for the protection of the wheat crop were given and were put into effect by many farmers. Similar work also has been undertaken in the Gulf and South Atlantic States.

Early in the spring the Bureau of Entomology made arrangements to secure systematic reports from various sections of the country regarding the prevalence of insects attacking food crops. It was essential to have readily available full and accurate knowledge of the exact conditions with reference to injurious insects, especially those threatening the staple crops. The reports received were promptly digested and transmitted to all State and station entomologists and others who were in a position to assist in reducing losses from insect attacks. In this way the field workers of the Bureau, in cooperation with the State authorities, were able to deal more effectively with insect problems in many sections of the country. Under the provisions of the Food Production Act the bureau has instituted an extensive campaign to disseminate information concerning means of preventing insect ravages and to demonstrate proper methods of control. It is planned to place 40 additional expert entomologists in the field to cooperate with the extension forces. Nineteen already have been appointed. They are dealing with the Hessian fly in the wheat areas, insects affecting truck crops—especially sweet potatoes—in the Gulf States, and those damaging deciduous fruits in the Appalachian region and citrus fruits in the South and in California. In the Northwest they propose to inaugurate an educational campaign directed against insects affecting cereal and forage crops. Six specialists in addition to the regular force have been assigned to the task of stimulating the production of honey.

CONSERVING POTATOES.

Sweet and Irish potatoes were planted more extensively than ever before. To reduce the losses resulting from improper handling and storage of the former, specialists were placed in the regions of large production, and their work, it is estimated, already has resulted in a saving of \$3,000,000. The methods of storing and handling Irish potatoes are well understood and the commercial practice in this field is fairly satisfactory. There is room, however, for great improvement both in quality and yield. A special survey, therefore, was undertaken to locate desirable fields of potatoes, free from disease and of good quality, which could be utilized for seed stock. Experts are now working on the problem in Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, New Hampshire. Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Colorado.

PURCHASE OF SEED CORN.

To relieve the situation caused by severe drought in certain sections of Texas, and especially to insure a sufficient supply of good seed for the next planting season, steps were promptly taken to purchase a stock of approximately 37,500 bushels of seed corn for sale to farmers for cash at cost, as provided in the Food Production Act. The Department also, with the cooperation of the Food Administration Grain Corporation, undertook to insure an adequate supply of seed

wheat for planting this fall and next spring. The Grain Corporation permitted elevators to set aside special storage space and authorized them to charge a slight advance over the established price to cover extra charges. The Department located available stocks of seed, inspected them, certified to their soundness, and notified farmers where and on what terms they could secure such seed.

THE MEAT SUPPLY.

The task of increasing the meat supply, necessarily a slow one in its production phase, is particularly difficult. Hogs and poultry yield the quickest returns, and therefore urgent efforts were made to increase their production. Special campaigns were conducted by the specialists in animal husbandry, and the membership in the boys' and girls' pig and poultry clubs was greatly increased. Press notices designed to promote the raising of poultry were issued and later were incorporated in a special back-yard poultry leaflet, which was widely circulated. At the same time active steps were taken to stimulate the production of beef and dairy cattle, and several specialists in sheep husbandry were assigned to duty in the Eastern States to encourage the production of sheep on farms. Funds have been set aside from the appropriation made by the Food Production Act to employ a force of 32 additional men to give their entire time to the task of increasing the number of hogs, 39 to encourage poultry raising, and 6 to assist producers of beef cattle.

The transfer of cattle from regions where there was a shortage of feed to areas where feedstuffs were relatively plentiful has received special consideration. This work was begun late in June and is still under way. Field agents were assigned to Texas and Montana to locate cattle likely to be unwisely disposed of, and at the same time men were stationed in regions where there was an abundance of feedstuffs to locate prospective buyers. It is estimated that by the end

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of October this work had resulted in the transfer and saving to the Nation of more than 100,000 cattle.

On account of the severe winter and late spring in the West, the live-stock losses were very severe in every range State. It was urgent that the National Forest ranges be opened at the earliest possible date in order to prevent further losses, especially of lambs and calves. To meet this situation animals were admitted to the ranges earlier than usual and the number grazed was increased by approximately 350,000 over any previous year. Notwithstanding this action, the demand for grazing privileges could not fully be met.' Obviously, the next important thing to be done was to provide for further utilization of the range in 1918. To study the effects of the increased use of the ranges this year, to discover in what particulars the present method of handling the stock and allotting the range might advantageously be modified as an emergency measure, and to secure the best available knowledge regarding the number of stock which the ranges can be made to carry with safety next year, a special inspection force has been organized. As a result of this study of the problem it will be possible to bring about a still further emergency use of the National Forest ranges for live-stock production in 1918.

CONTROL OF ANIMAL DISEASES.

The work connected with the suppression of animal diseases has been vigorously pressed. Special attention has been directed to the control of hog cholera and cattle ticks. Estimates show that the losses from hog cholera during the past fiscal year decreased by approximately 30 per cent and reached the lowest average per thousand head since 1894. More than 40,000 square miles were released from quarantine on account of the cattle tick during the past fiscal year and 1,788 on September 1, 1917. Sixty-five thousand five hundred and twenty square miles will be placed in the tick-free area on December 1. More than 51 per cent of the original

infested territory has now been cleared of the tick. The work was greatly enlarged during the past summer, and many additional employees were assigned to it. The suppression of the tick makes possible the introduction of more and better beef and dairy cattle, and already thousands of fine breeding cattle have been procured by Southern farmers. Satisfactory progress has been made in the prevention or control of other destructive animal diseases.

Under the Food Production Act the facilities of the Bureau of Animal Industry for dealing with live-stock diseases have been further extended. Forty-six employees have been added to the tick-eradication forces in order that the work may be prosecuted more vigorously and additional areas be prepared for systematic effort next year. They have been assigned to duty in seven States. This force will be increased by 10 in the near future. In 12 States an inspector has been detailed to assist in combating tuberculosis of cattle and swine and abortion of cattle, and it is proposed to increase the number to 19. In the control of blackleg of cattle and anthrax of domestic animals, five men are regularly employed. From time to time, however, as occasion arises, employees regularly assigned to other duties are detailed to the work of fighting these diseases. These activities of the Department now cover 15 States and will be extended to 10 more as promptly as possible. Sixty-five additional veterinarians have been assigned to the hog-cholera work. Fifteen more will be appointed as soon as competent men can be obtained. The fight against the disease has been under way for some time in 28 States, and as soon as the necessary arrangements can be made with the State authorities it will be carried into the remaining 20 Commonwealths.

THE LIVE-STOCK CONFERENCE.

In the effort to increase the meat supply, it seemed of the highest importance that the cooperation of the live-stock men of the Nation should be secured. Having this in view,

in August I decided to ask representatives of the various live-stock interests to attend a conference in Washington on September 5 and 6, 1917. Shortly after the call for the conference was issued, in view of the interest of the Food Administration in many phases of the same matter, it was determined to have a joint conference and to create a National live-stock industry committee. People representing not only the producers of the various kinds of live stock but also the farm journals were invited to become members of the committee and to attend the conference. It was pointed out that there had been a tremendous slaughter of animals abroad, and that the destruction would continue at an accelerated rate. The duty of this Nation to supply food for its own citizens and soldiers and also to help feed the civilian population and soldiers of the Allies was emphasized. was especially suggested that attention should be given to the problem of redistributing cattle, sheep, and hogs from areas where feed supplies were short to those where they existed in greater abundance. One hundred and eighty-five men, including representatives of the Department of Agriculture and the Food Administration, attended the conference, which lasted for two days. Certain recommendations, with many of which the Department is in thorough accord, were made by the conference. Some of them had reference to undertakings which the Department and other agencies have had under way for some time and which have been enlarged in recent months. Among these are the following:

The extension of the live-stock reporting service of the Bureau of Markets; the vigorous prosecution of the work of eradicating the cattle tick; the encouragement of the boys' baby-beef clubs and pig clubs and the cow-testing associations; protective action against the stray dog, the enemy of the sheep; the extension of the work of education with reference to sheep raising and wool growing; and the redistribution of animals, to be promoted mainly through the county agents. Certain legislation was suggested, including,

particularly, regulated grazing on the public domain, which this Department has earnestly favored for a number of years. It was urged also that steps be taken to control uneconomic speculation. It was understood that the United States Live Stock Industry Committee should continue in existence and cooperate with the Department and the Food Administration in bringing about the increased production, conservation, and orderly marketing of live stock.

PRODUCTION AND CONSERVATION OF DAIRY PRODUCTS.

Because of the large place that dairy products hold in food economics, efforts were made to conserve the supply by the elimination of waste and the more complete utilization of byproducts. In many sections in the Southern and Western States the number of creameries and cheese factories was increased, resulting in large additions to the food supply and contributing to the welfare of the farming communities. In the settled sections of the Eastern and Middle Western States efforts were made to increase the efficiency of the operations on the farm and in the factory. The milk supply of many cities was improved and increased through the application of a few simple and efficient methods. In the South an active campaign for the greater production of feedstuffs, a necessary feature of dairy development, was conducted in cooperation with the extension authorities.

Every effort has been made to encourage the use of cottage cheese as a substitute for meat. A number of circulars and press notices explaining its food value and the ways in which it can be made in the home and in the factory were issued. Personal instruction also was given to creamery operators, home-economics workers, and farm women. Six experts have devoted their entire time to encouraging the production of cottage cheese on the farm and this number will be increased. In the mountainous sections of the South special efforts have been made to increase cheese production. The

establishment of cheese factories was encouraged in localities where climatic and other conditions render their operation feasible. Work was begun in these regions in September, 1914, when the first cheese factory was established in North Carolina. Since that time the number of factories has increased rapidly until at present there are 34, of which 26 were established during the last fiscal year. All have been successful. They furnish outlets for milk in localities far distant from railroads and centers of population, and in this way are of great benefit to isolated regions. While the work in this field is relatively new in the West, the results have been no less striking. Nine men were employed during the summer to promote the utilization of by-products of creameries and milk plants. The work was conducted in eight States and plans are under way for its further development.

WHEAT AND OTHER CEREALS.

When a state of war was declared it was clear that spring wheat offered the only opportunity, in part at least, to make good the prospective shortage of winter wheat indicated by heavy winterkilling. County-agent leaders, therefore, in cooperation with the Department, immediately put into effect plans for increasing the production of spring wheat, as well as of oats, barley, corn, potatoes, buckwheat, soy beans, grain sorghums, and other food crops, with the result that the total acreages planted were much larger than they would otherwise have been. For example, the seeding of spring wheat, which promised to be only one-half to two-thirds the normal, was increased to normal; seed corn was more carefully selected and tested; and oats were more extensively treated for smut with a consequent increase in yields. Many farmers who previously had not grown potatoes at all planted sufficient for their own use, and many who had never grown potatoes as a market crop planted a large acreage.

The special campaigns in the South for the increased production of foodstuffs through the extension forces were very

successful and gave a remarkable demonstration of the value of such educational work, especially in an emergency like this. The net result was a marked increase in the planting of corn, soy beans, velvet beans, cowpeas, peanuts, sweet potatoes, Irish potatoes, and other food crops. The corn crop in the 15 Southern States was 964,504,000 bushels, or more than a fourth of the whole crop of the United States.

FALL PLANTING.

Realizing the importance of continued efforts to promote the production of staple commodities and of making plans promptly for the immediate future, in June I appointed a committee of experts of the Department to make suggestions for future action, especially with reference to winter-wheat planting. The committee considered the problem from every angle and reached the conclusion that a strenuous effort should be made to secure the planting of an area that would, under favorable conditions, produce a billion bushels of wheat in 1918-880,000,000 bushels through the winter crop and the remainder through increased spring planting. committee also recommended that steps be taken to encourage the production of over 83,000,000 bushels of rye and that the production of winter oats in the South should be increased to the extent that seed was available. This program called for the planting of 44,634,000 acres of winter wheat and 5,522,000 acres of rye, and was submitted by telegraph to the leading agricultural authorities of various States concerned. As a result of their suggestions it was finally determined to propose the planting of 47,337,000 acres of winter wheat and 5,131,000 acres of rye.

In announcing the program it seemed desirable to place particular emphasis on the crops seeded in the fall and to make no specific suggestion as to the spring crops, such as corn, spring oats, rice, the grain sorghums, and buckwheat, until the acreages successfully sown to winter cereals could be determined. Similarly, action with regard to beans, soy beans, cowpeas, peanuts, and various other legumes, and the spring-planted forage crops, was left for final consideration until more complete data as to the 1917 harvest are available. It was suggested, however, that the acreages of fall-seeded hay crops should at least equal those of the present season. The need of husbanding seed supplies was pointed out, and the machinery of the Department's committee on seed stocks was set in motion to bring about an effective interchange of seeds from well-supplied regions to those reporting shortages.

Through a number of channels the Department proceeded to bring the program to the attention of the grain farmers of the country and to seek their cooperation in making the recommendations effective. It was published as a circular and also was given wide distribution through the press and the Weekly News Letter. A series of conferences immediately was held by representatives of the Department in several of the grain-growing sections of the country. They were held in Washington for the Eastern and Northeastern States; in Atlanta for the Southeastern States; in Indianapolis for Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, and Kentucky; in Kansas City for Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, South Dakota, Wyoming, Colorado, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona, Texas, and Arkansas; and in Spokane, Wash., for the remaining States. The local problems likely to be encountered in increasing the grain acreage were discussed with farmers, agricultural leaders, bankers financing agricultural enterprises, and editors of agricultural journals.

Following the publication of the program and the holding of the conferences, the Department carried on an intensive campaign to emphasize the need for an increased production of grain and the best methods to be employed in obtaining the increases suggested. Several special bulletins and posters were prepared and distributed, and articles discussing various phases of grain production and handling were issued through the general press, agricultural press, and the publications of the Department. The extension workers throughout the grain-growing regions concentrated their attention upon the problem and urged farmers to cooperate with the Department.

THE FARM-LABOR SUPPLY.

It was early apparent that in certain sections of the country, particularly near the great industrial centers in the North and Northeast and especially in the vicinity of plants undertaking large war contracts for the Government, there would be a marked shortage of farm labor. It was obvious, too, that, on account of the abstraction of labor through enlistments in the Regular Army and through the operation of the draft law, difficulties would be experienced in many sections of the Union. The situation called for constructive action. A large army can not be constituted without causing inconvenience in many directions. It was clearly impossible to make exemptions by classes and to admit no farmers to the Army. Still, it was highly important that agricultural production be increased. Military failure could arise no less from shortage of foodstuffs than from shortage of ammunition or man power. The task was presented of making the labor remaining on farms more effective, of securing fuller cooperation among farmers, and of utilizing on the farms urban and rural labor not heretofore fully or regularly employed. Past experience made it clear that labor might be transferred from certain communities where the seasonal pressure had passed to others and where the need was immediate. It was known, too, that there were hundreds of thousands of boys in rural districts and villages who might render useful service, and that the army of boys and girls

organized in agricultural clubs might be enlarged and its members employed in additional directions. It was assumed that there were more than 2,000,000 boys between the ages of 15 and 19 years in the cities and towns who were not engaged in productive work vital to the Nation, that many of these had had contact with rural life, and that their services might be utilized on the farms, especially in the harvest season.

The Departments of Agriculture and Labor and other agencies immediately after the outbreak of the war undertook to furnish assistance. The War Department itself held definitely in mind the thought of lightening the burden as far as possible by not calling to the colors those essential for leadership and direction. Under the pressure of the first draft it was difficult to work out satisfactorily the underlying principle of selection. For the future a system of classification was adopted which embodies the following features of special interest to farmers and agencies dealing with agriculture: The selectives are classified into five groups, indicating the order in which they will be called to service. Skilled farm labor is in class 2, highly specialized agricultural experts in agencies of the State or Nation in class 3, and heads of necessary agricultural enterprises in class 4. The operation of this new arrangement should remove many of the difficulties previously encountered and, in reasonable measure, meet the demands of the situation.

It was realized that after all was done there would be need of additional labor in many sections. The Department of Labor therefore undertook to study the available supplies in towns and cities and developed its system of employment agencies for this purpose. One object was to secure information, which could be conveyed to the Department of Agriculture and to State agencies, as to available labor in urban centers and to have it drawn upon for aid in farming operations in near-by communities. The Department of Agri-

culture assumed the task of studying the supplies and needs in rural districts. It arranged to place a man in each State in touch with the State council of safety with the special duty of assisting in the mobilization and organization of rural labor. Under the provisions of the Food Production Act, 38 farm-labor agents have been appointed and are devoting their entire energies to the problem.

The problem of the organization of labor remaining in agriculture is of the highest importance, and it is essential that, if possible, it be so perfected that there may be produced in this emergency as much as was formerly produced by the whole number of laborers, and, if possible, a greater quantity. The experience of the present year has been valuable. Constant attention is being given to the problem, and it is hoped that during the ensuing months even more useful work may be done. A conference of all the labor representatives of the Department and of agencies with which they have been cooperating in the various States was held in St. Louis on November 9 and 10, 1917, to discuss the whole problem, to canvass the activities and results up to that time, and to make more efficient plans for next season. Whether resort in the future must be had to more drastic action on the part of the State and Federal authorities will depend upon the necessities of the case. Conscription of labor for industrial purposes would necessarily present many difficulties. Powerful influences are operating to bring about the release of labor and capital from less essential enterprises and their diversion into more urgent undertakings. These will become increasingly compelling as the situation develops. They will be aided by the growing realization on the part of the people generally of the necessity of curtailing expenditures on nonessentials and of redirecting labor and capital into vital industries.

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CHEMICAL INVESTIGATIONS EXTENDED.

The Bureau of Chemistry has made considerable progress in demonstrating the processes devised by it for preparing sugar-cane and sorghum sirup that will not crystallize or ferment and for utilizing the by-products. The work already under way on methods of handling, packing, storing, shipping, and utilizing fish in order to make the supply more immediately available for food has been extended and developed. In connection with the efforts to increase the supply of poultry and eggs, plans have been made to stimulate the establishment of poultry and egg packing plants in accordance with the principles worked out by the Food Research Laboratory. Ten additional men are being assigned to this work. Arrangements have been completed with three small packing houses to serve as demonstrations for their communities and become centers for the distribution of information regarding better methods of handling, packing, and shipping. The work of determining the proper methods of drying fruits and vegetables on a commercial scale has been continued and extended. The Bureau of Plant Industry is also giving special attention to the drying of agricultural products under farm conditions.

PUBLICATION ACTIVITIES.

The information service, which furnishes timely articles to the press regarding the activities of the Department and the results of its investigations and experiments, has been enlarged in several directions. Plans have been perfected for supplying information to the weekly newspapers, women's magazines, agricultural press, and others in more available form. On October 15, 1917, a number of agricultural editors were asked to come to Washington to discuss the work of the Department in this field and to make suggestions for improvement. They promptly responded and made a number of recommendations of a helpful character.

There has been an unusually large demand for the publications of the Department. Over 22,000,000 emergency Farmers' Bulletins, circulars, leaflets, posters, and the like were published from April 1 to November 1 in connection with the efforts to increase production, to eliminate waste, and to promote conservation, and an equal number of publications dealing with the regular activities of the Department were issued in the same period, making a total since April 1 of approximately 44,000,000. The special circulars and posters were distributed largely through the county agents and other cooperating agencies. Copies also were supplied to official organizations, war committees, civic associations, and patriotic clubs throughout the United States.

The interest in the exhibit work of the Department has greatly increased. Additional equipment has been secured, and the Department has participated in a large number of educational fairs and expositions of regional or national importance. This work has been particularly useful in connection with the efforts to promote the better conservation and utilization of farm products.

THE RESPONSE OF THE FARMERS.

Imbued with patriotic motives, influenced by favorable market prices, and falling in with the suggestions of the Department of Agriculture and of State agricultural agencies, the farmers of the Nation manifested much interest in the campaign for increased production and displayed efficient activity in reference both to plant and animal foodstuffs and feedstuffs. The weather conditions during the spring were generally favorable and, according to the unrevised estimates, the Nation will have, as the result of the work of the farmers and of all the agricultural agencies, approximately 3,191,000,000 bushels of corn, 659,797,000 of wheat, 1,580,000,000 of oats, 201,659,000 of barley, 56,000,000 of rye, 16,813,000 of buckwheat, 33,256,000 of rice, 73,380,000 of kafir,

439,686,000 of Irish potatoes, 84,727,000 of sweet potatoes, 15,957,000 of commercial beans, 42,606,000 of peaches, 11,-419,000 of pears, 177,733,000 of apples and 7,621,000 tons of sugar beets. These figures represent increases of cereals in the aggregate over 1916 of 1,006,000,000 bushels, and over the average for 1910-1914 of approximately 1,000,000,000 bushels, but a decrease of production in comparison with 1915 of about 199,000,000 bushels. It should be borne in mind, however, that the carry-over of cereals from last year was much below the normal and that the percentage of soft corn of the 1917 crop was unusually high. The figures also reveal the record crop of Irish potatoes of 439,000,000 bushels, 154,-000,000 more than in 1916, and 79,000,000 more than the average for 1910-1914; an increased production of sweet potatoes over 1916 of 14,000,000, and of 24,000,000 over the fiveyear average; and of sugar beets of 950,000 tons over 1916, and 2,230,000 over the five-year average. There was also the largest production of perishables on record. While authentic figures for meat, poultry, dairy products, and vegetable oils are not available for 1917, it appears, from rough estimates, that the quantity of these commodities for this year is slightly greater than for either 1916 or 1915, and exceeds the five-year average by two or three billion pounds.

The number of milch cows and other cattle has shown an increase during the last four or five years, the estimate for the former for the present year being 23,906,000 as against 22,768,000 a year ago and 20,497,000 in 1913, before the European war began, while that for the cattle is 43,291,000 as against 40,849,000 a year ago and 36,030,000 in 1913. Unfortunately, the number of sheep continues to decline; the estimate for 1917 is only 46,059,000 as against 48,483,000 a year ago and 51,482,000 in 1913. It is estimated that the number of hogs, which during recent years has shown an upward tendency, decreased over 4,000,000, or from 67,543,000 to 62,747,000. However, it is greater than it was at

the beginning of the European war. The number of hogs varies from year to year more widely than that of the larger meat animals.

In considering the whole meat situation it should be kept in mind that there is a close relationship between the production of live stock and the supply of feedstuffs and that for more than a year past there has been a relative shortage of grains and of forage. The large production of these necessaries during the present crop season should conduce to more satisfactory conditions for the producers of live stock and should, other things being equal, tend to bring about an increase. But with the destruction of live stock in Europe and the great demands from there for meat and fats, with consequent greatly increased exports from this country, it is clear that the supply will not be adequate for the domestic needs and for those of the nations with which we are associated in the war. The mere statement that the population has steadily increased in this country—the gain in the 10 years from 1908 to 1917 being 13,000,000—with an absolute decrease in the live stock for the same period, would sufficiently emphasize the seriousness of the situation if conditions were normal and the demand for meats and fats were not so urgent. The great importance of doing everything possible economically to increase the meat supply of the Nation I have strongly emphasized in each previous annual report and in many addresses. This is one of the great problems to which the department persistently has given earnest and vigorous attention.

The actual increase in the acreage of fall-sown crops can not be accurately determined at this time. There is every indication, however, that the farmers in the sections where fall grains can be profitably raised have patriotically responded to the Nation's call for more breadstuffs. Reports made to the Bureau of Crop Estimates in August, before the campaign for increased acreages was well under way, indi-

cated an intention on the part of farmers to increase their sowing of winter wheat by about 10 per cent and of rve by about 3 per cent. If these intentions are realized, it will result in the planting of 44,100,000 acres of wheat and about 4,340,000 acres of rye. Reports received since August are to the effect that the fall-sown acreage of these two crops has been increased in nearly every State, although the drought in the Southwestern States and in portions of Washington has made it impracticable fully to carry out the planting program. The official estimate of the acreage of winter wheat and rye will be issued on December 19 after the planting of winter grains is completed in the South. Similarly, it is too early to determine the percentage of germination of seed actually sown, and therefore any prophecy at this time as to the actual harvest of winter wheat to be expected in 1918 would be merely a guess.

That the farmers of the Nation have generously responded to the appeals for increased production, and that much has already been done to insure a large supply of foods and feed-stuffs, justifies no let down in their activities or in those of all agricultural agencies. On the contrary, even greater efforts must be put forth in the coming months if we are to meet satisfactorily the domestic demands and the needs of the nations with which we are associated in this struggle. There must be no breakdown on the farms, no failure of foods, feedstuffs, or clothing. I can not emphasize too strongly the urgent necessity of doing everything possible to bring about a still further increase in the production of all essential commodities, particularly of the staple crops and live stock.

COOPERATION WITH OTHER DEPARTMENTS.

Many of the Bureaus of the Department have rendered and are rendering definite assistance to the War and Navy Departments and other branches of the Government in connection with war problems. A few instances may be cited:

The Bureau of Animal Industry is cooperating with the Navy Department in the reinspection of meats and meat food products at 27 naval stations, and 67 inspectors have been detailed for similar work at the various Army camps, cantonments, forts, and other places. Approximately, 50,000,000 pounds of products have been reinspected in this way. Unusual precautions also have been taken to see that the meat and meat food products intended for the Army and Navy contain no harmful substances.

To insure a safe and sanitary milk supply for the Army cantonments and naval stations, the dairy specialists of the Department have investigated the local situations and have made suggestions for improvements. The inspection of large quantities of butter for the Navy also has been supervised by the experts of the Dairy Division.

All supplies of vegetables purchased and loaded on the naval supply ships have been and are being inspected by representatives of the Bureau of Markets. The importance of this work is indicated by the fact that it was necessary recently to reject 500,000 pounds of diseased potatoes.

MISCELLANEOUS ACTIVITIES.

The Office of Home Economics has studied emergency rations for the Army and Navy, as well as general questions relating to rationing for the Coast Guard Service. The Bureau of Chemistry has done considerable work for the military and naval services in preparing specifications for foods and in analyzing and investigating the products offered to them. It is also assisting these agencies in the standardization of their food supplies. In addition, the Bureau is conducting research investigations on the antiseptic qualities of some important compounds, which may be very useful to the Army and Navy Medical Corps.

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The Bureau of Entomology has placed its experts in entomology, as well as all information on camp sanitation in its possession, at the disposal of the Medical Corps. The Bureau of Soils has cooperated effectively with the War Department in investigational work relating to fixed nitrogen and sulphuric acid. Experts of the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering have been detailed to assist the War Department in road building at the 16 cantonments, and valuable data have been placed by this Office at the disposal of the military authorities.

FOREST-PRODUCTS INVESTIGATIONS.

The emergency work in the field of forest products has assumed large proportions. The entrance of the United States into the war presented a host of new problems requiring solution. Standards and specifications had to be revised to meet the emergency conditions. In some cases it was necessary to locate new sources of supplies and, in many instances, to find satisfactory substitutes for the materials previously used. A very important part of the work relates to methods of conditioning rapidly, through artificial seasoning, woods used in the manufacture of rifles, airplanes, and vehicles. Assistance in these directions has been rendered by the Forest Service to the War and Navy Departments and also to the Shipping Board and the Emergency Fleet Corporation, to various committees of the Council of National Defense, and to manufacturers of war orders. To press this work effectively it has been necessary to discontinue most of the peace-time investigations of the Forest Products Laboratory at Madison and to devote its research facilities and staff mainly to the study of war problems.

At the request of the War Department the Forest Service assisted in the organization of a regiment—the Tenth Engineers (forest)—for forestry work abroad. It selected and recommended to the War Department a list of officers who

were experienced practical foresters and lumbermen. It also made arrangements to secure recruits, mainly woodsmen, lumbermen, and sawmill hands, and the necessary equipment, fitted to meet the conditions which operating in France would involve, was devised. It is now cooperating with the War Department in the organization of another similar regiment—the Twentieth Engineers (forest).

AEROLOGICAL WORK DEVELOPED.

The Weather Bureau has placed at the disposal of the naval forces along the coasts of the United States and in the Army timely and accurate weather information. The work of the weather stations along the Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific coasts has been closely coordinated with the coast-guard and coast-patrol services of the Navy Department. Some of the forecasters of the Weather Bureau have been commissioned by the War Department and, in this way, the cooperation between the two agencies will be rendered more effective.

An appropriation of \$100,000 for extending the aerological work of the Weather Bureau in aid of aeronautics was included in the Army Appropriation Act of May 12, 1917. This sum became available on July 1, and steps immediately were taken to put into effect the plans previously formulated for the establishment of five aerological stations in addition to the one already maintained at Drexel. The rapid development of this work is, of course, a matter of great importance in connection with the aircraft production program. The Bureau also has made arrangements for furnishing accurate weather information at the various cantonments, and it has assisted the War Department in the organization of its aerological observation work and of a regiment for the gas and flame service.

NEED OF WATER-POWER LEGISLATION.

For several years attention has been directed to the necessity of enacting proper legislation relating to the devolopment of the water power of the Nation. It becomes increasingly urgent that amendments to existing law be made and that a well-rounded policy be decided upon. The present industrial situation, and particularly the scarcity and high cost of fuel and construction materials, have increased the cost of steam power and make it highly important that action be taken at the next session of Congress. Legislation which will make it possible to safeguard the public interests, and at the same time to protect private investors, should result in securing cheaper water power and in conserving the coal and fuel-oil supply. Since three departments of the Government are vitally concerned in water-power legislation and its possible terms and would be vitally affected by the administrative handling of matters under such legislation, it would seem desirable to consider whether it is feasible to devise an executive body on which the three departments will be represented and which will be able to utilize to the best advantage all their existing agencies.

THE FEDERAL AID ROAD ACT.

In the administration of the Federal Aid Road Act of July 11, 1916, very satisfactory progress has been made. The Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering, which is intrusted with the burden of administering the act, has expanded its organization to provide the requisite machinery. Ten district offices with an engineer in charge, have been established in as many areas. The work in the Washington office has been divided into two branches, management and engineering. The management branch deals with all administrative, fiscal, legal, statistical, and economic questions, while the engineering branch has charge of all matters relating to construction and maintenance. This redirection of the work has greatly increased the efficiency of the office in the handling of Federal aid road projects and in maintaining close relations with State highway departments.

Probably the most significant result thus far of the operation of the Federal Aid Road Act has been the enactment by a number of State legislatures of effective road laws. Legislative action in some States was necessary to meet the requirements of the Federal act, but many of the States have gone further and have recast their highway policies entirely. All the States have assented to the provisions of the act-42 by their legislatures and 6 by their governors. Thirty-three had a highway department within the meaning of the act upon the date of its approval. The remaining 15 have since enacted legislation creating highway departments which comply with the terms of the law. The highway departments in 18 States have been greatly strengthened, specific appropriations to meet the Federal funds have been made by 10, and comprehensive maintenance legislation has been enacted in 9 States. Forty-two States now have satisfactory maintenance laws. Nearly all the States have submitted definite schemes or programs of work for the entire five-year period covered by the act or for the greater portion of it. The formulation of carefully prepared plans for the full period in advance of construction tends to prevent wasteful and haphazard undertakings.

Under the provisions of the act, 40 States have submitted 183 projects, involving a total of approximately 1,730 miles. Of this number, 189, embracing 1,182 miles and calling for an estimated expenditure, including Federal, State, and local funds, of \$7,947,114.50, have been approved. These projects involve Federal funds to the extent of \$3,455,573.76, or 23.75 per cent of the total allotment, \$14,550,000, to the various States for the fiscal years 1917 and 1918. Six projects, covering 40 miles, have been disapproved. Agreements have been entered into or are in the course of preparation in the case of 34 projects, aggregating 197.74 miles and involving \$990,600.84 of Federal funds and a total of \$2,225,944.74.

The full effect of the Federal Aid Road Act can not be measured by any comparison of funds expended in 1916 and made available for 1917, as many of the legislatures did not meet until early in the calendar year 1917. It is significant, however, that while the expenditures of State funds in 1916 aggregated \$40,969,000, it is estimated that the expenditure of State funds in 1917 will reach approximately \$60,000,000, or an increase of nearly 50 per cent. These funds are distinct from local expenditures and indicate an advance in State participation in highway work.

THE GRAIN STANDARDS ACT.

The preliminary steps in connection with the Grain Standards Act were discussed in the last annual report and need not be repeated here. Progress has been made since that time in increasing the efficiency of the administrative machinery, and the work is now on a very satisfactory basis. Thirty-five supervision districts, with as many central head-quarters have been fully equipped for the task. Forty-one supervisors, 10 assistant supervisors, and 80 grain samplers, together with the necessary clerks and other employees, have been appointed and assigned to duty.

On February 6, 1917, tentative official standards for wheat were made public and hearings immediately were begun in all the important wheat sections and wheat markets of the United States. The final hearing took place in Washington on March 7, and the standards were promulgated in final form on March 31. They became effective for winter wheat on July 1 and for spring wheat on August 1.

Licensing of inspectors proceeded throughout the month of November, 1916, and on December 21 a complete directory of persons licensed to inspect corn was issued. Seven hundred and four applications for licenses to inspect corn and wheat have been received, and three hundred and forty-three have been approved. The demand for inspection of

grain by licensed inspectors is steadily increasing. Approximately, 569 appeals have been taken to the Secretary of Agriculture under the provisions of the act through the various field offices.

The supervision of inspection has not been confined to the determination of appeals and disputes. Ten thousand six hundred and fifty-six official samples of shelled corn have been secured and analyses made to determine their true grade. This was done in order to check the accuracy of inspection as carried on in various markets and inspection departments. From December 1, 1916, to May 30, 1917, 237,595 cars of shelled corn were inspected and graded by licensed inspectors according to the Federal standards.

A comparative study of the results of inspection of wheat received at the large marketing centers under the Federal standards and under the standards in use prior to their establishment is of interest. Of the Hard Red Spring wheat which arrived at Minneapolis and Duluth during the months of September and October, 1914 and 1915, and which was graded according to the previously used standards, 5.9 per cent received a numerical grade of No. 1 Hard, 37.5 per cent a grade of No. 1 Northern, 24.2 per cent a grade of No. 2 Northern, 14.8 per cent a grade of No. 3 Northern, or a total of 82.4 per cent of the receipts graded No. 3 or higher. During the month of September and the first 15 days of October, 1917, 88.5 per cent of the Hard Red Spring wheat received at Minneapolis and Duluth, which was graded according to the Federal standards, graded numerically No. 3 or higher, as follows: No. 1, 52.6 per cent; No. 2, 25.4 per cent; No. 3, 10.5 per cent. It should be noted in this connection that the quality of this year's crop is high and that four grades are included under the former State standards, namely, No. 1 Hard, No. 1 Northern, No. 2 Northern, and No. 3 Northern, while under the Federal standards there are but three grades.

The offices of Federal Grain Supervision have cooperated with the United States Food Administration in the supervision of the grading of wheat for the purposes of the Food Control act, and information and data secured in connection with the work under the Grain Standards Act have been placed at the disposal of the Food Administration and other branches of the Government.

THE PINK BOLLWORM OF COTTON.

A highly destructive cotton pest has made its appearance in Texas. Its presence there is a serious menace to the future successful growing of cotton in the Nation. During September, October, and November of this year the pink bollworm, for many years prevalent in Egypt, India, and Hawaii, and more recently in Mexico, was discovered at several points in Texas. It was found at two places in the vicinity of mills which received seed from Mexico in 1916. One of these was near Hearne, and the other at Beaumont. It was also discovered in fields 15 or 20 miles from the latter place. There appears to be no doubt that the insects were introduced through the imported seed. The other infestations, reported early in November, are on or near Trinity Bay, in the southeastern part of the State, and are much more serious on account of their intensity and the wide area involved.

Very few damaged bolls were found at Hearne and Beaumont. The cotton in the fields in the vicinity of the mills at these places was quickly uprooted and burned. In some cases the ground was subjected to blasts of fire. The cotton already picked was so handled as to prevent any insects it might contain from escaping. Similar steps are now being taken in the fields referred to 15 or 20 miles from Beaumont.

In the Trinity Bay region the insect was first discovered at Anahuac. The latest information indicates that it has spread

along the northern and eastern shores of the bay for a distance of approximately 100 miles. One thousand acres of cotton are involved. Many of the fields are somewhat uniformly and heavily invaded. While no definite information is available as to the origin of the outbreak here, it is suspected that the infestation is of several years' standing. The community is remote from Mexico, has no railroad connections, and, so far as can be determined, has received no seed direct from Mexico or from the mills which had imported seed from that country. It is not impossible that the presence of the insect is due to seed imported several years ago from Egypt. Fortunately, cotton culture in this section is limited in the main to the area near the bay, between which and the great cotton-growing sections of the State there is interposed a stretch of country in which little or no cotton is grown. The crop is usually moved directly to Galveston and Houston, where it is ginned and where the seed is manufactured into oil and cake. The isolation of the region will facilitate the eradication of the insect, but the task will be a work of great magnitude, and will compel resort to the full powers of the recently enacted Texas law authorizing the establishment of cotton-free zones and the destruction of infested cotton. It is proposed to establish similar zones near Hearne and Beaumont.

The pink bollworm, so styled on account of the color of the larva, is perhaps the most serious known enemy of the cotton crop. It destroys not only the bolls and lint but also the seeds and greatly reduces the yield of oil. It hibernates in the larval stage in the seed and has been carried to practically all the cotton-producing countries of the world. The damage it is causing in Egypt, India, Hawaii, and other countries indicates the seriousness of the menace to cotton culture in this country.

The pest apparently was introduced into Mexico in 1911 through Egyptian cotton seed. Its existence there, however,

was not brought to the attention of the Department until November 1, 1916, when some infested bolls were received from a resident of the Laguna district. This discovery was followed by the immediate issuance of an order prohibiting the further entry into the United States from Mexico, except from the Imperial Valley, State of Lower California, of all cotton seed, cottonseed hulls, and seed cotton, and bringing under regulation and restriction as to ports of entry Mexican cotton lint of all kinds.

Strict rules and regulations governing the importation of cottonseed cake, meal, and other cottonseed products into the United States from Mexico and other foreign countries also were issued with a view to prevent the introduction of the insect with these products in uncrushed seed. Accurate information was promptly obtained as to the disposition of the seed which had been brought across the border under permit for milling during the season of 1916. It was ascertained that a total of 436 cars of seed had entered the United States within the year prior to November 4, 1916, and had been distributed among mills in different parts of Texas. A campaign was begun immediately to expedite the milling or destruction of the seed. This work was carried out with great thoroughness under the direction of experts of the Department in cooperation with the Texas Department of Agriculture, the mills concerned, and the Cottonseed Crushers' Association of Texas. A border inspection and control service covering all car, freight, baggage, and other traffic between Mexico and the United States also was organized and is in full operation.

To enable the Department to deal more effectively with the situation, an estimate for an emergency appropriation of \$50,000 was submitted to Congress on December 14, 1916. The appropriation, however, did not become available until March 4, 1917. In the meantime, the control work had been instituted as far as possible with available funds. During

the growing season of 1917 all cotton fields in the vicinity of the mills which had received Mexican seed were frequently inspected to determine whether any pink bollworms had escaped to the adjacent fields. So far, the only evidences of such escape are the sporadic outbreaks at Hearne and at Beaumont. The fields will be kept under constant observation during the remainder of the year, and none of the locally grown seed will be used for planting next season. The portion of the crop which was not destroyed will be rigidly controlled, the lint shipped abroad or fumigated, and the seed promptly ground up at the mills. The old cotton plants over a wide area will be pulled up and burned to prevent overwintering of the insect in undeveloped or dead bolls.

As a result of a conference held by the Department in Washington in July and participated in by the Commissioner of Agriculture of Texas and other experts from the State, a bill was prepared giving the State authorities power to cooperate with this Department in the establishment of cotton-free zones and local quarantines. This bill was presented at the special session of the Texas Legislature and has since been enacted into law.

It is planned to establish a cotton-free zone in Texas, approximately 50 miles in breadth, along the Mexican border. It is proposed not only to eliminate cotton culture in this area but also to eradicate all volunteer cotton. Similar zones will be established to include any infested areas in Texas or the other Southern States. Furthermore, the cotton grown on the Mexican side will be kept under observation, and the Department will cooperate with the Mexican Government, local authorities, and plantation owners in stamping out any outbreaks within 50 miles of the border. If the assistance of the Mexican Government can be secured, a thorough survey will be made of all Mexican cotton regions to ascertain the present distribution of the insect. This survey ultimately would be the basis for determining

the possibility of exterminating the pest in Mexico. It may appear that the most effective and economical method of preventing the further invasion of the United States by the pink bollworm will be to undertake this task. It would involve large expenditures, but the seriousness of the situation might amply justify them.

To make it possible to carry out these preliminary plans, an estimate of \$500,000 was submitted to the Congress on June 22, 1917. On October 6 the sum of \$250,000 was made available in the Urgent Deficiency Act.

The spirit revealed by the farmers and the results of their efforts during the present year indicate that they recognize the responsibility resting upon them in this emergency. I am confident that they will patriotically continue to assume and to bear their full share of the country's burden. The farmers of the Nation have always shown their devotion to the cause of freedom and have not been slow to respond to their country's call for men and means to defend its rights. They will not submit to Germany's dictation. They will not permit her to impose illegal restrictions on their privilege of going freely to any part of the world where they have a legal right to go or of sending their products into the open markets of the world. They will realize that the dictum of Germany that this country should not send its ships at will to the ports of great nations of Europe was not only unwarranted and impertinent, but also that, if it had been acquiesced in, it would have involved them very particularly in great direct financial loss and suffering. As the meaning of this struggle is more fully revealed, as it becomes increasingly clear that a contest is again being waged to determine whether the world shall be dominated by the will and policies of medieval despotisms or by those of free and enlightened modern States, and whether the mere right of

might or the rule of law shall prevail in the world, and as it becomes more obvious that the surest way to force a righteous peace is to employ effectively all the resources of the Nation, the farmers will increasingly put forth their strength, send their sons to fight at the front, and see to it that neither this Nation nor those with which we are associated lack anything in the way of materials for food and clothing. It is incumbent upon them, as it is upon all other civilians, to work and to save, to seek no mere selfish advantage, and to reveal the same spirit of devotion and willingness to make sacrifices and to give all they are and have which animate the soldier in the trenches, if this struggle is to be brought to a satisfactory conclusion. Every facility that this Department can command to assist them will be freely placed at their service.

Respectfully,

D. F. Houston, Secretary of Agriculture.

The PRESIDENT.

BRIEF REVIEW OF THE WORK OF THE BUREAUS AND OFFICES OF THE DEPARTMENT, 1917.

THE war in Europe, even before the United States entered the conflict as a principal, was making heavy demands upon every one of our industries, and upon none was the stress heavier than upon agriculture, the basic industry of the country. It is, therefore, not strange that the activities of the department had become intensified and every effort was being made to increase the production of food, feed, and fiber to meet the great foreign demand.

When we entered into the struggle, before additional appropriations had been furnished to permit increased efforts to be put forth, and even before the war declaration had actually been made, every bureau, office, and individual in the department was devoting every pound of energy to bringing about the production and conservation of greater crops than ever.

Naturally many of the minor activities of peaceful days were either abandoned or put aside, in order that the demands of these strenuous times might be met. Therefore, the brief reviews of the work of the different bureaus and offices here presented, deal more with the last three months of the fiscal year than with the previous nine months, as the interest in the work from April to July is paramount, dominating, and continuing.

Besides the great bureaus of the department there are several organizations actively engaged in the department's work, usually in a general administrative way serving all the bureaus and coordinated in the Office of the Secretary.

Consequently the reviews of the work of the Solicitor, the Office of Farm Management, the Office of Exhibits, the Information work, and the Publication work, together with the Insecticide and Fungicide Board and the Federal Horticultural Board, which assist the Secretary in the enforcement of the insecticide act of 1910 and the plant quarantine act of August 20, 1912, have been included under one general heading.

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OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY.

BRIEF SUMMARY OF WORK OF THE SOLICITOR.

Fifty-eight bills and amendments relating to agricultural subjects were drawn or examined and commented on, including the Food Production and Food Control bills, the Migratory Bird Treaty bill, the Virus and Serum bill, the Cotton Standards bill, the Personal Rural Credits bill, and the River Regulation and Flood Control bill. A brief on the constitutional questions involved in the Food Control bill was printed as part 10 of the hearings before the House Committee on Agriculture. Aid was given in preparing the department's reports on Federal and State bills covering, among other subjects, grain standards, vegetable basket and container standards, preparation and manufacture of serums and toxins, interstate commerce in misbranded articles, and construction of public roads.

In cooperation with bureaus, regulations were prepared for administration of the Federal Aid Road Act, the United States Cotton Futures Act, the United States Grain Standards Act, the United States Warehouse Act, and the United States Standard Basket and Container Act. Forms required in the administration of these acts were also prepared.

The laws of each State were examined to ascertain whether the State had qualified to participate in the benefits of the Federal Aid Road Act. Aid was given some of the States in the preparation of legislation to qualify them for participation in the benefits of this act.

The office rendered 1,727 written opinions and prepared many briefs or memoranda for submission to officials of other departments in matters appertaining to the administration of the Department of Agriculture. There were 3,981 cases investigated and reported to the Department of Justice for prosecution. Fines and recoveries in litigated and nonlitigated cases amounted to \$246,255.99 and decrees of condemnation and forfeiture were entered in 411 food and drug cases.

There were handled 687 land claims in the National Forests. Decisions in favor of the Government resulted in retention in the National Forests of lands supporting timber valued at more than \$686,736. Titles to 152 tracts of land,

to be purchased under the Weeks Forestry Law, were examined.

Forty-seven applications for patents on inventions of department employees were filed.

The office prepared 2,397 contracts, bonds, and similar papers.

OFFICE OF FARM MANAGEMENT.

The work of the Office of Farm Management for the year has been largely determined by the exigencies of the world war. Soon after the United States entered the struggle this Office, in cooperation with the Department of Labor, began to cope with the farm-labor problem. A comprehensive plan of action was worked out, and a representative of the department was placed at the disposal of each State to help State agencies in perfecting an organization, effecting a cooperative arrangement practically nation wide, that has been instrumental in doing much toward relieving labor shortages in various parts of the country. This organization is continuing, and will be in position to meet future shortages of farm labor as they may arise.

In cooperation with the Bureau of Animal Industry in the field of live-stock economics, investigations obtained significant results as to the better farm management practices in producing beef animals in the corn belt. It was found that in order profitably to maintain herds for the production of feeder cattle on the higher-priced lands, the farmer must depend largely upon the cheaper feeds, used in connection with abundant pasture and cheap roughage.

Further studies of methods employed in the production of farm crops continued during the year, particularly with reference to cotton, sugar beets, corn silage, potatoes, and hay, affording data as to farm practices which make for economy in production in the different regions.

Progress has been made in the study of farm organization, in the study of farm tenantry and lease contracts, in the preparation of an Atlas of American Agriulture, and in the field of farm bookkeeping and cost acounting.

THE OFFICE OF EXHIBITS.

During the past year 37 expositions or shows have been held in 15 States and the District of Columbia, ranging from 29190°—YBK 1917—5

Massachusetts to California and from Florida to Texas. These have varied in extent from displays of a single activity occupying but a few square feet of space to shows embracing many lines of endeavor and filling thousands of square feet of floor space.

EXPOSITIONS PROVIDED FOR BY CONGRESS.

Two of the expositions held during the year were provided for by Congress; one in Springfield, Mass., in cooperation with the annual meeting of the National Dairy Show Association, having for its object the illustration of the work of the boys' and girls' clubs and cooperative agricultural extension work carried on in the North Atlantic States, and one at El Paso, Tex., in cooperation with the International Farm Congress and Soils Product Exposition. The exhibits for this latter exposition were selected with special reference to their educational value in illustrating the products and processes of dry-land agriculture.

LOANED EXHIBITS.

The department sometimes loans its exhibits to fairs of various kinds, and makes displays for which no appropriations have been made, when this can be done without expense to the Government and without interfering with more important work being carried on at the time. A cash deposit and a properly executed bond is required in every case, indemnifying the department against any loss and securing the safe return of the exhibits.

During the past year, loans have been made to 35 fairs and shows, all without loss or serious accident. This is noteworthy in view of the amount of material handled and the distances shipped.

FOOD PRODUCTION AND CONSERVATION SHOWS.

The stimulation of greater interest and activity in food production and conservation, made necessary by existing war conditions, has led to a concentration of effort in exposition work along these lines. An important show of this character was made in New York City during August, in cooperation with a corporation of that city. The exhibits selected illustrated food production and food conservation, either by prevention of loss from disease, the ravages of insects and fungous pests, or by the prevention of waste through the preservation of foodstuffs by canning and drying. In connection with this exhibit, demonstrations were carried on daily, teaching methods of canning and drying which could be conducted by a family under ordinary home conditions.

A similar exhibit was made in connection with the home canning and food conservation exhibit by a firm in Washington, D. C. This display included a particularly attractive window show on the street floor and a number of exhibits relating to foodstuffs in the auditorium, where the canning exposition was held and the demonstration carried on.

Food exhibits have largely taken the form of window displays in department stores on prominent streets, where they are seen by shoppers and others passing. Displays of this character have been made in Washington, D. C., Baltimore, Md., Lancaster and York, Pa., and New York City and Brooklyn, N. Y.

The displays made by the department during the past year in nearly every section of the United States have brought its activities before hundreds of thousands of people in an attractive, instructive, and forceful way, which will result in great and lasting benefits to the country at large.

OFFICE OF INFORMATION.

Since war was declared the Office of Information has been engaged chiefly in the preparation and issuance of material relating to the production, conservation, and distribution of foodstuffs. Through effective cooperation on the part of farm journals and daily newspapers, this information has been very widely circulated. From the date of the Nation's entry into the European war to June 30, 1917, statements had been furnished to the press. These articles, based on data furnished by the department's specialists, dealt primarily with the canning, drying, and preserving of fruits and vegetables, poultry raising, and increased production of corn, oats, wheat, rye, and live stock.

The office assisted in the preparation of a number of pamphlets known as the "Food Thrift Series" of which over

a million copies have been distributed. Thirty-three poster bulletins were designed, the editions of which ranged from 1,000 to 300,000.

The Weekly News Letter, prepared in the Office of Information, has been increasingly used by the department's scientists as a medium for conveying to the rural districts practical advice on better cultural and marketing methods. It has been necessary to increase the size of this publication from four to eight pages.

From five to ten columns of illustrated matter were furnished each week for syndicate use.

PUBLICATION WORK.

The publication work of the department comprised 1,132 new bulletins, reports, separates, periodicals, and miscellaneous documents, the editions of which aggregated 22,987,335 copies. The total number of documents, new and reprints of earlier issues, was 47,023,635 copies, exceeding the record of any previous year. Of new department bulletins there were 172, the editions of which aggregated 1,320,000 copies; of new Farmers' Bulletins, 84 were issued, of which 4,515,000 copies were printed.

During the last quarter of the year certain Farmers' Bulletins were utilized by the department to stimulate crop production and to conserve the food supply of the country. Among them, in the order of their distribution, were No. 818, Plans for a Small Vegetable Garden, of which 1,000,000 copies were distributed; No. 255, The Home Vegetable Garden, of which 260,000 copies were distributed; No. 839, Home Canning by the One-Period Cold-Pack Method, edition 1,250,000 copies; and No. 841, Home and Community Drying of Fruits and Vegetables, edition 1,100,000 copies.

There was an active demand for all publications relating to the cultivation of crops, indicating a widespread interest in the subject.

An effective feature in the department's work for increased crop production was the printing, and distribution through its own agencies and through civic and patriotic organizations, of posters, food-thrift circulars, and leaflets, the editions of which amounted to more than 3,000,000 copies.

INSECTICIDE AND FUNGICIDE BOARD.

Under the Insecticide Act of 1910 and the annual appropriations the department regulated the interstate shipment and the importation and exportation of insecticides and fungicides, and also the manufacture and sale of such products in the Territories and the District of Columbia. Farmers, fruit growers, market gardners, and stock and poultry raisers were protected from fraudulent, misbranded, and adulterated insecticides and fungicides by the board's action during the year. Products to rid the household of insects, and disinfectants, germicides, etc., also were examined and controlled.

Materials used in spraying plants, such as fruit trees, vines, cotton, truck crops, in treating seed wheat and other cereals, to combat insect pests and fungous diseases, and for various purposes on poultry and on horses, cattle, sheep, swine, goats, and certain other domestic animals, were collected and examined. During the year 984 samples were collected by inspectors operating throughout the United States, and 35 samples were taken from consignments offered for importation at the various ports of entry. The samples collected cover a wide range of materials, and it was found that many new articles were being sold.

The results of several years' investigational work by the chemists of the board, to determine how lead arsenates on the market should be labeled and to obtain scientific information relative to the preparation and properties of various lead arsenates, were published during the year in four papers, and a fifth paper was prepared and accepted for publication.

The investigation started sometime ago to discover a chemical method to determine stems in adulterated insect powder, establish standards, and study the process of manufacture of insect powder and the composition of raw materials as well as the finished product, prepared under known conditions, was completed. Work was begun to determine the composition and methods of preparation of tobacco dust sold on the American market. The results of this work will be of great service in recognizing adulteration and misbranding of these classes of goods.

In cooperation with the Bureaus of Entomology and Plant Industry the field tests of the value of dust mixtures were continued and information of much value in connection with the enforcement of the act was obtained. The scope of the work has been materially widened this year in order to cover a larger list of fruits and vegetables.

The entomologists and plant pathologists of the board in connection with the testing of the efficacy of proprietary insecticides and fungicides have continued the field and laboratory investigations relative to the practical value of a number of substances in the control of certain insects and diseases, including pyrethrum powders, tobacco powders, and nicotine solutions; and exhaustive tests and studies to obtain basic facts to aid in the enforcement of the law were made of the effect of a large number of chemicals on roaches, bedbugs, clothes moths, chicken lice, dog fleas, aphids, and red spiders.

THE PLANT QUARANTINE ACT.

In relation to domestic quarantines the Plant Quarantine Act was amended by the last Congress to give broader powers and to include in addition to plants and plant products, stone or quarry products, and any other articles which may be the means of disseminating diseases or insect enemies of plants.

The further entry of current and gooseberry plants from Europe and Asia has been prohibited, these plants being alternate hosts of white-pine blister rust. A domestic quarantine has been established in relation to this disease prohibiting the movement of five-leafed pines and currant and gooseberry plants from the eastern to the western United States in order to protect the important western pine forests; and New England and New York, as representing the region in this country most seriously infested with this disease, have been placed under a supplemental quarantine. The quarantine in relation to oriental corn has been modified to permit the entry of such corn after sterilization. The restrictions on the entry of potatoes from Canada and Bermuda have been entirely removed. In relation to citrus canker, the entry of oriental citrus fruit has been prohibited. with the exception of oranges of the mandarin class, which are permitted entry at certain ports under regulation. The Mediterranean fruit fly quarantine has been modified so as to extend the list of fruits and other plant products which may be shipped from Hawaii to the United States.

As a result of the discovery in November, 1916, of the establishment of the pink bollworm enemy of cotton in Mexico, the further entry of cotton seed from Mexico was prohibited and the entry of Mexican cotton lint was brought under restriction. In addition, the entry of manufactured cottonseed products from Mexico and other foreign countries was brought under restriction. Clean-up work was immediately instituted in relation to all the mills in Texas which had imported Mexican cotton seed for milling purposes during the year, and a very strict border control of all railroad freight and other traffic between Mexico and the United States was established. For the conduct of this work an additional appropriation of \$50,000 was made immediately available in the appropriation act for this department for the fiscal year 1918.

ACTIVITIES OF THE WEATHER BUREAU.

The activities of the Weather Bureau during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1917, were mainly as follows:

The daily collection of the meteorological observations representing the United States and the West Indies and the preparation and distribution of the weather forecasts and warnings of injurious weather conditions based thereon and of the daily maps and bulletins containing the data thus obtained: the collection and publication of data representing the climatology of the United States and the meteorology of the adjacent oceans; the preparation and distribution of the daily, weekly, and monthly river, weather, and crop bulletins: the preparation and issue of the Monthly Weather Review: the continuation of the aerological, seismological, and solar-radiation investigations, with the publication of results: the maintenance and care of the various telegraph lines owned and operated by the bureau and of the other extensive equipment required for the various observations; the extension and improvement of the weather service in the West Indies and Caribbean Sea region; and the administrative and clerical duties required in the maintenance of the personnel, the keeping of the accounts, and the furnishing of the necessary supplies.

SPECIAL ACTIVITIES INCIDENT TO THE WAR.

The aerological work of the bureau was extended in the aid of aeronautics, as contemplated under the special appropriation of \$100,000 in the Army bill, including free air observations at six primary stations to be established in connection with the Aviation Service. One of the principal forecasters and an assistant, commissioned as major and first lieutenant, respectively, were sent to France to organize a weather-forecast service for the benefit of our military operations there, in cooperation with the French Meteorological Service.

The chief of the aerological work, with an assistant, commissioned as major and first lieutenant respectively, went to France to facilitate the closest possible coordination of the aerological work of the bureau with that done in the Army. Trained meteorologists were furnished as commissioned officers in the regiment composing the gas and flame service. An arrangement was made for the securing of meteorological observations at and in the vicinity of the military camps, for use in connection with the health and sanitation service of the Army. The coordination of the vessel-reporting service and the forecast service with the Coast Guard and Coastal Patrol Services of the Navy Department was effected. In connection with the conservation of food, instructions were issued to Weather Bureau employees enjoining alertness in the dissemination of warnings of weather conditions injurious to perishable foods and other products during transportation, and urging the collection of data to be used in the publication of a bulletin giving advice to shippers of perishable products as to the precautions to be taken in connection with shipments during the winter season.

SUMMARY OF WORK OF THE BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY.

As a part of the department's special efforts to increase and conserve food and other agricultural products to meet war conditions, the Bureau of Animal Industry has directed its energies toward stimulating the production of meat and dairy and poultry products, suppressing animal diseases, pointing out the wisest use of available feedstuffs for live stock, and encouraging the more general raising of farm animals. Special campaigns were begun to enlarge the production of hogs and poultry, which yield quicker returns than other animals.

Animal diseases were combated in a more intensive way than ever before. The greater efforts in eradicating the southern cattle tick in the summer of 1917 resulted in freeing more territory than in any year since the beginning of the work. The total area released amounts to 379,312 square miles, or 52 per cent of the territory originally infested. This tick-free territory is now open to successful cattle raising and dairying. The more active work against hog cholera has been rewarded by a marked decline in the prevalence of that plague and the placing of hog raising on a relatively safe basis in sections where heavy losses usually occurred. Work for the eradication of scabies of sheep and cattle and dourine of horses was continued and good progress made in reducing the extent of those diseases. The warfare against tuberculosis of animals was continued and plans were made for greatly extending this work through a newly organized division of the bureau.

Investigations in breeding and feeding live stock were continued, with results useful to the live-stock industry of the country.

The membership of the boys' and girls' pig clubs reached 21,673, nearly double the number at the beginning of the year. The girls' and boys' poultry clubs at the end of the fiscal year had 11,224 members. Of these, 1,987 sent in full reports, which showed that their total receipts and value of stock on hand amounted to \$39,546.25, with an average profit of \$14.72 for each member reporting.

Work for the development of dairying in the South and West has led to marked improvement and to the introduction of some good dairy cattle in those regions as well as to the establishment of a number of creameries and cheese factories. Cow-testing and bull associations have grown in numbers and results. There are now 472 active cow-testing associations composed of 12,088 dairymen owning 216,831

cows, while the active bull associations number 36, with a membership of 1,158, owning 189 pure-bred bulls. In the older settled sections of the Eastern and Middle Western States efforts have been directed toward more efficient operations for both farm and factory. Cooperation with city health officers for the improvement of milk supplies has led to better milk for many cities. A simple steam sterilizer for farm dairy utensils was devised and demonstrated, and this is having a marked effect in improving the sanitary quality of milk.

The output of meat under Government inspection broke all previous records. The inspection was conducted at 883 establishments in 253 cities and towns. There were slaughtered under this inspection 63,708,148 animals, and the inspection also covered 7,663,633,957 pounds of meat and meat food products, derived from the inspected and passed carcasses and later reinspected during canning, curing, and other processes. Condemnations amounted to 271,732 animals or carcasses, 781,307 parts, and 19,857,270 pounds of the reinspected products. Nearly 2,000,000,000 pounds of meat and meat food products were certified for export, and over 29,000,000 pounds of imported meat products were inspected.

In the inspection and quarantine service for preventing the introduction of contagious diseases with imported animals there were inspected 580,855 imported animals, of which 6,552 were quarantined. Live animals to the number of 354,991 were inspected for export.

The scientific investigation of diseases and parasites of live stock was continued both in the laboratories and in the field. Some of the diseases which have been made subjects of special study are contagious abortion, anthrax, vesicular stomatitis, and hog cholera. The study of internal parasites of sheep has yielded information useful in preventing losses from that cause.

SUMMARY OF WORK OF THE BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY.

In cooperation with all National and State agencies available, a campaign has been inaugurated to secure a planting of wheat sufficiently extensive to supply our domestic and

export needs of the coming year. Recent estimates indicate that this combined effort will be successful only by a material expansion of the acreage planted in spring wheat. A large number of special agents have worked in the principal winter-wheat districts during seeding time, endeavoring to extend the acreage, to increase the utilization of the best standard varieties of wheat, and to bring about a more general treatment of seed to prevent wheat smut. A vigorous campaign has been under way for the eradication, by treatment with formalin, of the stinking smut of wheat, covered smut of barley, oat smut, and stem smut of rye. This work has been conducted in cooperation with the county agents in the several States where cereal production is important. is certain that this work will materially decrease these diseases during the coming year and therefore both improve the quality of the grain and also increase the yield. The work of the year also shows that the stripe disease of barley can be almost completely prevented by seed treatment. The field studies, especially in the spring-wheat areas of the country. during the past year have shown that the common barberry plant is largely responsible for the severe epidemics of black rust or stem rust of wheat, and in order to safeguard the wheat production of these areas it will be necessary to completely eradicate the native barberry plant from this entire region. A new bacterial disease of wheat causing moderate although widespread damage during the past year has been carefully studied. Owing to the fact that the bacteria attack not only the leaves and stems but also the head of the growing wheat, the danger of the spread of the disease through infected seed is great. Plump wheat kernels do not contain bacteria and the disease can be largely prevented if the shriveled kernels are carefully screened out from wheat to be used for seed. The study of the best methods for the production and improvement of cereal crops has been actively continued. The development and distribution of the Kherson oats, which outyields other varieties by about 4 bushels to the acre, and the Trebi variety of barley, which is the best variety of barley for the irrigated regions of the Great Basin, are other striking achievements.

Work has been started in cooperation with the Philippine bureau of agriculture in Manila to encourage an increased production of the Philippine fiber suitable for binder twine. Fiber-cleaning machines were introduced to demonstrate methods for the production of better fiber than the retted Manila maguey, cleaned heretofore be retting in salt water. Sisal production in Porto Rico has also been developed.

Under the stimulus of continued high prices, cotton farming is extending rapidly in many of the irrigated valleys of the Southwest beyond the supposed limits of the cotton belt where the possibility of developing a new cotton industry has been clearly demonstrated in recent years by the work of this bureau. The area under Egyptian cotton in the Salt River Valley in Arizona is now approximately 35,000 acres, where in 1912 only a few acres were planted as experiments in cooperation with farmers. This season experiments carried on by the bureau in other valleys of the Southwest have shown that the growing of Egyptian cotton might easily be extended 200,000 acres or more. The single-stalk system of controlling the branching habits of the cotton plant has made possible another special method of culture for irrigated districts. The rows are planted in pairs, one on each side of a large furrow. Irrigation is confined to the furrows, which are separated by broader ridges that remain as a permanent mulch of dry soil. The water is applied more effectively, germination and growth of the young plants are more uniform, and less labor is required for cultivation and the control of weeds.

Previous to the war in Europe there was practically no sugar-beet seed produced commercially in this country. This bureau, in cooperation with the beet-sugar companies and with the beet-seed companies, has succeeded in building up the commercial production of sugar-beet seed, and this work will produce about 25 per cent of the annual planting requirement of the sugar-beet growers. The industry is rapidly increasing and the indications are that the production of sugar-beet seed will be nearly doubled in the year 1918, producing at least one-third of the quantity required for the following season's planting.

Early maturing varieties of velvet beans developed by the bureau have made possible the extension of this crop over a much larger area than has heretofore been considered adapted to this plant. As a result of this work, velvet beans were so commonly grown this year and so abundant that mills have been established to grind the beans in pods for concentrated stock feed.

The seed-testing work, comprising the determination of purity and vitality of samples submitted by seed firms and by farmers, has been continued, approximately the same number of samples being tested as in the previous year. Of the seed subject to the Seed Importation Act, 1,817,000 pounds were prohibited entry into this country and 26,519,000 were permitted entry either in the original condition or after recleaning in bond.

Practical measures of control have been worked out for many truck-crop diseases, notably those of the potato, cucumber, and watermelon. In Wisconsin and in the Burley section of Kentucky types of tobacco have been developed which are highly resistant to root rot, a disease causing heavy loss to growers every year, and in North Carolina it has been demonstrated that the tobacco wilt can be effectively controlled by systematic rotation of crops and keeping down certain weeds. The germ causing the bacterial wilt of cucumber has been found to be carried over winter in the bodies of certain striped cucumber beetles.

Many improvements in orchard spraying have been developed; for example, it has been found that apple bitter rot and blotch can be successfully checked by late summer spraying, and continued spraying schedules for the apple and peach have been perfected for various sections.

Encouraging progress has been made in the eradication of the citrus canker disease of orange, grapefruit, lemon, and lime trees. Many localities formerly infected have been free of the disease for many months, and are officially reported as free of canker. In the regions not yet cleaned, vigorous work, in cooperation with State officials, will be continued to eradicate infections and prevent further spread of the disease. An important result of the citrus-breeding work has been the discovery of the decided canker resistance of the Japanese and other Asiatic pomelos and certain new hybrids originated by the bureau.

In cooperation with States in which five-leaved white pines occur, a campaign for the location of all cases of whitepine blister rust has been inaugurated in order that the eradication or control of the disease where found may be attempted. The information obtained indicates that the western forests are free of the disease and with the existing quarantine restrictions are unlikely to be infected. The infections from the Mississippi River to the Hudson River are more or less scattering in character and show promise of being eradicated at an early date. East of the Hudson River in many regions the blister rust is so widely disseminated that its complete eradication does not appear practicable, but tests of the feasibility of control measures sufficient to insure the continuation of lumbering operations have been inaugurated.

Special stress has been placed upon the making of home vegetable gardens, the production and storage of sweet potatoes, and the growing of staple canning crops to contribute to the extraordinary needs of the country during the present crisis. The peanut work has been decidedly enlarged and greatly extended, and special emphasis was placed upon the harvesting and curing of the crop and upon the manufacture of edible oil from the peanut. The Irish potato work has received earnest consideration from the point of maintaining production under very adverse conditions, particularly as regards seed supply available for the crop of 1917. Before and at the time of harvesting the crop of 1917 special emphasis was placed upon the importance of husbanding the crop through provision of proper storage houses in order to prevent loss through lack of transportation facilities or from inadequate protection. At this time also special efforts were made to determine fields true to variety and free from disease, the product of which would be suitable for seed purposes. Much was accomplished in this line, and the largest crop of potatoes ever produced has been harvested and stored.

Field representatives stationed upon the Government reclamation projects worked in direct cooperation with the settlers in the development of local agricultural industries and in the formation and development of farmers' cooperative organizations. This year such work was under way upon the following reclamation projects: North Platte, Truckee-Carson, Minidoka, Tieton, Shoshone, Huntley, Uncompangre, Boise, and Umatilla.

The results of the systematic investigations that have been conducted in the Great Plains during the past 10 years provide information from which it is now possible to direct the agricultural developments in this region along the safest and most fruitful lines. It has been shown that some crops can not be profitably produced in certain portions of the plains by any method of culture; some soils also do not respond to differences in tillage methods. No method of cultivation has proved its ability to overcome the extremely unfavorable climatic conditions that occasionally occur. Small grains are best adapted to the northern, and sorghum crops to the southern portion of the plains, and the production of live stock is essential for the best development.

During the year there were distributed on congressional and miscellaneous requests 12,170,448 packages of vegetable seed and 3,812,467 packages of flower seed, or a total of 15,-982,915 packages, each containing five packets of different kinds of seed. There were also distributed 12,735 packages of lawn-grass seed, 650 packets of tobacco seed, and 11,159 boxes of imported narcissus and tulip bulbs. The seeds and bulbs were purchased on competitive bids as heretofore and each lot of seed was thoroughly tested for purity and viability before acceptance for distribution by the department, and tests of each lot of seed were conducted on the department's trial grounds to determine trueness to type. Approximately 35 per cent of the seed was secured from "surplus" stocks, the remainder being grown for the department under contract. The contract of last year for packeting, assembling, and mailing vegetable and flower seed was continued in effect, the price being 941 cents per 1,000 packets, which included hauling to the city post office or to the mail cars on track. There were also distributed during the year 244,463 packages of new and rare field seeds, including 90,067 packages of cotton seed. This distribution enables the farmers to secure seed of new and improved crops in sufficient quantities to produce stocks for future seeding, the general effect of which is very gradually to improve the crops of the country. FOREST SERVICE ACTIVITIES.

The usual activities of the Forest Service were materially affected by the entrance of the United States into the war.

The field force of the service assisted in the protection of public works and transportation lines in the National Forest regions, and in the gathering of military reconnaissance information valuable to the War Department. The number of live stock permitted to graze on the National Forests was increased up to the limit of safety for the range. Crop production in and near the forests was stimulated wherever possible. At the request of the War Department the service assisted in raising a regiment of skilled woodsmen and millmen, officered by trained foresters and men experienced in the lumber industry, for woods service in France. A number of members of the Forest Service have been commissioned by the War Department in connection with forest work in France and with other activities relating to the national defense.

The net area of the National Forests, or, in other words, the area actually owned by the public, was reduced during the year by 253,661 acres, making the total net area 155,-166,619 acres on June 30, 1917. Owing to the consolidation in several cases of two or more forests into one, the number of National Forests at the close of the fiscal year was 147, as against 152 on July 1, 1916.

Receipts from the National Forests touched a new high level in the year, when they reached a total of \$3,457,028.41, an increase over the previous year of \$633,487.70. The chief increases were in receipts from timber sales, with a total of \$1,692,520.21, and in those from grazing, with a total of \$1,549,794.76. The total amount of timber cut from the National Forests in 1917 was 840,615,000 board feet, as against 714,505,000 board feet in 1916, while the amount of timber sold (mostly to be cut later) was more than double that in 1916. An increase of 25 per cent in the charge for grazing permits was made in the spring of 1917 in order that the charge may more nearly represent the actual value of the grazing privilege.

In the calendar year 1916, which includes one-half of the fiscal year, the National Forests protective force fought 5,665 fires, 5,405 of which were extinguished before \$100 damage was done. The total damage chargeable to all the fires was only \$198,599, as against \$353,389 in 1915. Seven thousand

four hundred and ninety acres in the National Forests were planted to young trees during the fiscal year.

The year brought a greater demand than ever for permits to graze live stock in the National Forests. On the ranges were 7,586,034 sheep, 1,953,198 cattle, 98,880 horses, 49,939 goats, and 2,306 swine.

New permits put in force for the operation of power plants and power-transmission lines in the National Forests brought the total minimum discharge capacity of plants operating under permit up to 570,959 horsepower. A recent decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of a Utah power company fully upholds the right of the Secretary of Agriculture to regulate water-power development on National Forest lands.

Permanent improvements constructed in the National Forests during the year included 130 miles of road, 1,153 miles of trail, and 1,414 miles of telephone line. Preliminary work was begun under section 8 of the Federal Aid Road Act, which appropriates \$1,000,000 a year for 10 years for roads in or partly within National Forests, built in cooperation with the States or counties concerned.

On recommendation of the Forest Service, the National Forest Reservation Commission approved for purchase during the year, under the terms of the Weeks law, 175,463 acres in the Southern Appalachian and White Mountains for new National Forests. This brings the total amount of land approved for purchase in the two regions up to 1,455,563 acres.

Cooperation, in the form of a money allotment used chiefly for the hire of men to patrol the woods, was given 21 States in protecting the forested watersheds of navigable streams. The total allotment amounted to \$100,000, and the cooperating States contributed a total of \$434,667 more toward the work.

Investigative work on the National Forests brought some important results affecting range management. On high mountain lands it was found that erosion and decrease in soil fertility following range depletion materially lengthens the period necessary for revegetation. Another study brought out the hitherto unrecognized importance of erosion in its earlier and less severe stages, and of leaching, as a cause of

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range deterioration through the loss of soil fertility. A study of methods of handling cattle made at the Jornada Range Reserve demonstrated the importance of proper care and supplemental feed in saving the calf crop.

Investigative work outside the National Forests covered a broad field. A summary of the study of the lumber industry was published. Studies to aid the farmer in marketing the products of his woodland were completed for Georgia, South Carolina, and Maine. An economic survey of farm woodlands in the eastern United States, in cooperation with the Office of Farm Management, was practically completed. At the Forest Products Laboratory investigative projects progressed to the stage of commercial demonstrations in the use of waste hemlock bark for roofing and for various paper products; in the treatment of timber to prevent sap stain; in the kiln drying of southern pine; and in the production of ethyl alcohol from wood waste. Over 500 tests were made upon Sitka spruce, white oak, and yellow birch to determine the influence of drying and steaming on strength, with particular reference to use in airplanes. In the course of kilndrying tests methods were perfected by which many species of wood can be dried in a much shorter time than is now required, and with less loss of material. Work was largely completed on spruce and ash for airplanes, the problem being to dry the material artificially in the minimum time without loss of strength and toughness as compared with air-dried stock.

SUMMARY OF THE WORK OF THE BUREAU OF CHEMISTRY.

WORK DONE IN CONNECTION WITH THE ENFORCEMENT OF THE FOOD AND DRUGS ACT.

The enforcement of the Food and Drugs Act constitutes the largest part of the work of the Bureau of Chemistry. The disposition of the foodstuff and drug industries to cooperate with the bureau continues to grow, with a resulting improvement in the quality of their products and the elimination of spoilage and wastes.

Special attention has been given to shipments of polluted or spoiled food. The canning of decomposed navy beans has been suppressed. The interstate shipment of oysters from polluted waters and the practice of adulterating oysters and scallops with water have been almost entirely checked. Cooperation with the State officials in improving the egg and milk supply has continued, with most satisfactory results. Action has been taken against the shipment of worthless citrus fruit, evaporated apples, and canned tomatoes adulterated with water, and mixtures of cider vinegar with distilled vinegar or dilute acetic acid simulating genuine cider vinegar.

Much educational work has been done to secure a strict compliance with the requirements of the net-weight amendment, and a number of prosecutions for violating the amendment have been brought with success. Work has been in progress to establish tolerances in filling packages of tea, coffee, cocoa, spices, and similar free-flowing materials.

With the aid of State officials, the inspection of low-protein meal and cake made from delinted cotton seed, reported last year, was repeated and extended to the Pacific coast.

The chief contribution of the Food and Drugs Act to the safeguarding of the people's health has been its effect upon the drug and patent-medicine industry; upon the control of the traffic in polluted, decomposed, or filthy foods; and upon the elimination from foodstuffs of contamination with poisons such as lead and arsenic entering the product through the use of impure reagents in the process of manufacture, or of utensils made from improper materials.

RESEARCH ON FOOD AND DRUG MATERIALS.

Studies upon the effect of fertilizing wheat with nitrates and potash at different stages of growth have demonstrated that nitrates applied when the wheat is beginning to head affect the composition of the wheat, but not the yield, while application when the plant is 3 or 4 inches high affects the yield, but not the composition.

The results of the study of the proteins of the peanut have been published, and, in cooperation with the Bureau of Animal Industry, it has been shown that peanut meal is a valuable feed for dairy cows. The chemical and physical properties of the different parts of the kafir kernel have been studied. A bulletin on the by-products of rice mills has been published, and an investigation on the pearling of barley and the use of barley as food has been conducted.

The changes in chemical composition which occur in the ripening of olives, oranges, grapefruit, and cantaloupes have been investigated. The relation between the properties of tomato products and the quality of the raw material from which they are made has been studied.

Further work has been done upon the preparation of cane and sorghum sirups, and upon the isolation and preparation of new sugars from various sources. The pollution of oysters, methods of self-purification, and the general sanitary handling of oysters have been studied.

CONSERVATION OF FOODSTUFFS,

Experiments were conducted to demonstrate that wheat is not necessary in fleshening poultry. An economical ration which will cause chickens to gain over 35 per cent of their initial weight in 14 days has been found.

A bulletin on fish meal and one on the handling, transportation, and uses of shrimp has been published. A bulletin on the methods of preserving fish by freezing has been finished.

Work on potato silage as cattle food has been continued. Studies on the fermentation of sauerkraut have been extended to the household preservation of corn, beets, and string beans, using vinegar or soured corn meal as a starter.

Progress in improving the methods of drying apricots and peaches has been made. It will soon be possible to conduct the drying of potatoes and the manufacture of starch from potatoes on a commercial scale large enough to determine the question of costs.

WORK RELATING TO THE WAR EMERGENCY.

Specifications for food products to be used in the Army and Navy have been prepared, and products offered to the military establishments have been analyzed and investigated. Chemical experiments relating to other supplies are under way.

COLOR INVESTIGATIONS.

A new method of manufacturing phthalic anhydrid, of great value in the manufacture of dyes, has been devised, and one for the production of chlorin substances is now being tried out on a large scale. The utilization in the manufacture of dyes of a number of products, which are either waste products of agriculture or products of agricultural origin obtainable in large quantities, has been investigated.

A new and accurate method for the separation and identification of oil-soluble colors in food products has been devised.

BUREAU OF SOILS.

SOIL SURVEY.

The Bureau of Soils mapped and classified the soils in 81 areas of a total extent of 46,407 square miles, classified the land in 35 National Forest projects, and studied the soil conditions in seven miscellaneous projects.

FERTILIZER INVESTIGATIONS.

At the Arlington Farm factory-scale experiments on the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen and kindred problems and on the production of phosphoric acid by a new process were successfully prosecuted. The work on nitrogen was done in cooperation with the Ordnance Bureau of the War Department. The feasibility of cheapening the cost of production of sulphuric acid was also demonstrated.

The work on potash has consisted mainly in a survey of the cement industry of this country and Canada, with a view to determine the amount of potash recoverable as a byproduct, and in the kelp work on the Pacific coast.

The results of the survey show that with the installation of proper equipment and with certain slight changes in the process of cement manufacture it will be possible to produce 100,000 tons of potash annually in cement mills, nearly all of which is now wasted. This represents nearly one-half the normal domestic consumption. The factory for experimental work in the production of potash from kelp was erected and

equipped so far that of the money appropriated for the purpose sufficient funds remained for operative expenses during the ensuing year. The factory will begin operations as soon as the condition of the kelp beds warrants.

CHEMICAL AND PHYSICAL LABORATORIES.

The chemical laboratories, in addition to routine analytical work, continued research work on the problems of liming and on the inorganic constituents of soils. The efforts of the physical laboratory have been largely absorbed in solving the physical problems connected with the fertilizer investigations at Arlington Farm, but time has been found to continue research work on soil erosion, on the movement of water in soils, and on the colloidal condition of clay soils. Systematic study of the physical properties of the important soil types of the country is also being prosecuted.

THE MORE IMPORTANT CONSTRUCTIVE DEVELOPMENTS IN THE WORK OF THE BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY DUR-ING THE FISCAL YEAR 1917.

As a primary requisite to the most effective work under war conditions would be an extremely accurate knowledge of the exact conditions relative to the increase of injurious insects, and especially those threatening staple crops, over the whole productive area of the United States, the Bureau of Entomology, coincident with the declaration of war, and. before the growing season, made arrangements with all of its field agents, with all of the State entomologists, with the professors of entomology in the agricultural colleges, and with all other prominent entomologists within the area of the United States, to begin a system of prompt reporting of prospective insect damage and of the increase from day to day of injurious species. This service was extended, with the cooperation of the men in charge of the Forest Service, the Bureau of Animal Industry, the Weather Bureau, the Bureau of Plant Industry, and of the Demonstration Service, to the field corps of all of these branches of the department. Reports as received were digested, formulated, and published as a series of emergency circulars, which were sent to all of the State and station entomologists

and to every one in position to help by practical work. The first of this series of emergency circulars was issued on May 1, and subsequent issues have been distributed on the first of each succeeding month.

The second line of emergency work was the perfection of plans for a large amount of practical instruction in insectcontrol methods and for the suppression of insect outbreaks, as authorized by the Emergency Food Production Act. These plans have been made in cooperation with the States Relations Service of the Department of Agriculture and the extension divisions of the various States. Specialists of the Bureau of Entomology have been sent to the various States where their knowledge of species and their training and experience in field conditions make them most useful. They have given lectures and demonstrations in the most improved methods of insect control to groups of farmers, stockmen, fruit growers, and others. The work planned covers effectively such important fields in economic entomology as insects injurious to cereal and forage crops; insects injurious to stored products in granaries, mills, and warehouses; insects attacking truck and garden crops; insects injurious to orchard fruits, citrus fruits, cotton, rice, sugar cane, and domestic animals. Numerous emergency publications have been prepared, as farmers' bulletins, posters, charts, etc., relative to injurious insects.

The shortage in sugar has made it highly desirable that honey production be increased as rapidly as possible. Therefore, a vigorous campaign was instituted to stimulate beekeepers to increased honey production. In cooperation with the States Relations Service, circulars were sent to every county agent in the country for distribution, letters were mailed to individual beekeepers, and the effort has met with an enthusiastic response. At the request of the bureau, a honey market news service has been begun by the Bureau of Markets.

The bureau has placed at the disposal of the Medical Corps of the Army its men trained in medical entomology and all of the information in its possession which the Army may need in connection with its important work in regard to camp sanitation.

This comprises about all of the work undertaken by the bureau after and because of the entrance of the United States into the war. Yet, with regard to the other work of the bureau, not so directly called forth by the war emergency, but which nevertheless has a distinct bearing on war conditions, the following should be stated.

As the result of the work of the past two years, and especially as the result of extended field experimentation in Louisiana and Mississippi, it appears that important results in the use of certain arsenicals applied in a certain way against the cotton boll weevil may be secured.

Important contributions were made to our knowledge of the screw-worm and the nose bot, which are very important pests of domestic animals.

Extensive experiments in northern Ohio against the grape berrymoth established conclusively the efficacy of two early sprayings of arsenate of lead applied by the "trailer" method—that is, by hand, with short leads of hose from the spraying outfit. Heretofore vineyardists have found it necessary to make applications of poisons so late in the season that the fruit at picking time was coated with the spray to an extent that greatly reduced its value.

Effective control measures have been developed for many of the insect enemies of the pecan, and distinct advance has been made in the control of the codling moth by the development of an automatic band trap placed around the trunk of the tree.

Notable progress has been made in the development of calcium arsenate, a substitute for arsenate of lead. This product may be readily and cheaply made at home. It has been taken up by manufacturers also, and is rapidly being adopted by orchardists on account of the economy in its use as compared with other arsenical insecticides.

The beetles that were killing timber in the yellow and sugar pine areas of the Yosemite National Park have been almost completely eliminated. The methods recommended by the bureau, as the result of long experimentation, to prevent losses by white ants, are being adopted, so that American manufacturers can now compete for foreign trade. The methods developed by the bureau, applied to stored shipbuilding lumber and the large Army and Navy stores of

handles, tent-poles, wheelbarrows, cars, and other hardwood articles are preventing damage by powder-post beetles, which is often extremely serious. In previous wars, large Army supplies accumulated and held for some time have been found practically ruined by these insects.

With regard to insects affecting truck crops, the principal accomplishments of the year have been the discovery of the place of hibernation of the striped cucumber beetle, a successful study of the sweet potato weevil, and the completion of a comprehensive work on the potato tuber moth.

It has been shown that the reason why the Angoumois grain moth has been so injurious to stored wheat in Pennsylvania is because of a wrong system of storage in tightly built barns and a thrashing at any time convenient to the owner. Early thrashing, with an entirely changed method of storing, the employment of fumigants, and clean methods will lessen the damage enormously. Nearly a dozen species of weavils affecting stored beans, peas, cowpeas, and other edible legumes have been studied, and new facts have been learned in regard to their life histories and the effect of cold as a remedy. Observations were made on the successful heating of a flour mill in Kansas to destroy the Mediterranean flour moth.

As late in the fiscal year an extensive flight of May beetles threatened the Northern States with a severe infestation of white grubs, an illustrated poster giving the most up-to-date control measures for the pest, based upon intensive investigations carried on during the previous three years, was distributed throughout the threatened region.

Special intensive investigations of the Hessian fly were begun in Illinois, Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri, in cooperation with State experts. This is the beginning of a large experimental research which will probably continue for several years. The great general outbreak of the Hessian fly has abated very perceptibly, excepting in eastern Kansas, where serious infestation of the 1917 crop threatens severe injury to the winter-wheat crop of 1918. Energetic steps have been taken to induce the wheat growers to plow down their 1917 stubble, to plant their wheat at the fly-free date, and to undertake other preventive measures.

It has been discovered that the Argentine ant, now widely distributed in the citrus region of that State, is largely responsible for the severity of infestation by various scale insects of California citrus trees, chiefly by deterring the helpful action of parasitic or beneficial insects. Several effective means of controlling the ants or preventing their access to citrus trees have been devised.

Means of preventing much of the loss hitherto occasioned by insects to plants grown in greenhouses have been worked out, and this information is now available.

Extension work in bee culture was carried on, in connection with the Office of Extension Work South, in several States. Work on the wintering of bees has been continued, chiefly in testing various methods of packing for colonies wintered indoors, indicating that colonies heavily packed will produce this year an average crop of more than 50 pounds, and possibly 100 pounds, greater than those insufficiently packed.

The most important new results of the work on the gipsy moth and the brown-tail moth have been the adoption of a new method of banding trees and the development of a tree-banding material prepared by the bureau in cooperation with the Bureau of Chemistry, resulting in a decrease in the cost; an increased effectiveness of the parasites imported from Europe and Japan and established in the infested regions in New England; new discoveries concerning the wilt disease of the gipsy moth; and the finding of a new caterpillar disease of this insect.

BUREAU OF BIOLOGICAL SURVEY.

The work of the Bureau of Biological Survey relates to the control and conservation of wild birds and mammals and the investigation of their life histories and relation to agriculture.

ECONOMIC INVESTIGATIONS.

Efforts have been directed primarily against predatory animals and noxious rodents. Great saving of live stock has been effected through the destruction of more than 100,000 predatory animals, about 75,000 of them through poison-

ing campaigns. The epidemic of rabies which has endangered western live stock as well as human life has been reduced to speradic outbreaks. Campaigns against ground squirrels, prairie-dogs, and jack rabbits in the West have saved vast quantities of hay, forage, and grain crops. Efforts have been continued against pocket gophers, field mice, and moles, and initial steps have been taken for a nation-wide campaign against house rats and mice. Experiments in the domestication of native fur-bearing animals have developed information of great value to the fur-producing industry.

Special attention to instances of damage by birds to crops has demonstrated that certain birds are too abundant in some localities for the best interests of agriculture. Damages to fruits in Arizona and to rice in Louisiana were investigated and such remedies applied as were possible under existing law. Field investigations of the European starling were made and a report partially completed. Alkaline poisoning was found to be the cause of a sickness among wild ducks about Great Salt Lake. Studies on the attraction and protection of birds and methods of increasing the food supply of wild ducks resulted in the publication of two bulletins and the preparation of five others.

BIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS.

To ascertain the conditions most favorable for species useful to the farmer, additional data have been assembled on the distribution, abundance, and habits of birds and mammals, including reports from about 50 voluntary observers on migration and on enumerations of birds nesting on certain areas. Field work on biological surveys was conducted in several States and investigations were made of the breeding areas and wintering grounds of migratory wild fowl. Reports on these projects, as well as technical revisions of several genera of mammals, are in various stages of completeness.

MAMMAL AND BIRD RESERVATIONS.

Five national mammal and 69 national bird reservations are administered in order to maintain wild life in the proper ratio to safeguard agricultural and recreational interests. The feeding of the elk at the winter refuge in Wyoming greatly reduced the losses of these animals. Those which now occur are due chiefly to lack of food before reaching the refuge, the killing of cows with unweaned calves, and illegal slaughter by tusk hunters. Elk were transferred from Yellowstone Park to widely separated forests and preserves.

INTERSTATE COMMERCE IN GAME.

Activities of officials are each year reducing the number of violations of the act regulating interstate commerce in game. The war's interference with exportations of mammals and birds from Europe has compelled importers to look to South America and the Orient. Only about a fourth as many canaries were entered as last year, only 6 per cent of the number of pheasants as in 1912, and no European partridges. Importations of quail from Mexico increased fourfold over 1916. Losses from quail disease during quarantine at the border were comparatively few, but were heavy from other causes after the birds reached their destinations.

MIGRATORY-BIRD LAW.

Violations of the migratory-bird regulations in 805 cases are withheld from prosecution pending decision of the Supreme Court on the constitutionality of the law. Widespread observance, however, has resulted in a greater protection for insectivorous birds, a marked increase of waterfowl and shorebirds, and the coming of thousands of these birds to localities where they had not nested for years.

BUREAU OF CROP ESTIMATES.

The Bureau of Crop Estimates prepares the Government crop reports, which are issued monthly and relate to estimates of acreages planted, growing condition, yield per acre, total production, numbers, prices, and value of about 70 different crops and classes of live stock in the United States.

For collecting data in the field the bureau maintains a trained field agent in each State, crop specialists for cotton, tobacco, rice, truck, and fruit crops; and approximately 175,000 voluntary crop reporters, mostly farmers, one in each agricultural township, one or more in every county, and large numbers who report upon special crops or classes of live stock. All of these report monthly directly to the bureau, where the reports are tabulated and averaged separately for each class, crop, and State.

The bureau also utilizes all other sources of information on crop conditions.

The estimates for each crop and State are made by the Crop Reporting Board, which is composed of the principal administrative officials of the bureau and one or more field agents. Every step in the preparation and issuance of the crop reports is properly safeguarded, and all employees of the Department of Agriculture are prohibited by law, under penalty of a fine of \$10,000, or imprisonment for ten years, or both, from giving out advance information, or from speculating in any product of the soil, or from compiling or issuing any false statistics relating to crops.

The accuracy of the crop reports is indicated by the fact that for the last five years the December estimates of the cotton crop have come within less than 1 per cent of the total ginnings as reported in the following March by the Bureau of the Census, and for the last two years the estimates have come within less than one-half of 1 per cent of the total ginnings.

The monthly crop reports enable farmers to plant and market their crops intelligently, transportation companies to provide cars to move the crops after harvest, bankers to provide funds for financing crop production and marketing, and manufacturers to estimate in advance the probable needs of farmers for implements, fertilizers, and other supplies. The Government crop reports also benefit farmers and consumers alike in that they tend to stabilize prices and prevent the issuance of erroneous and misleading crop reports by private speculators.

The organization and facilities of the Bureau of Crop Estimates have been utilized freely since the entrance of the United States into the war to estimate stocks of food and feed on farms, surpluses available for export, and the needs of allied and neutral countries in Europe. These estimates were an important factor in formulating the department's

program for increased food production and conservation in 1917 and 1918.

STATES RELATIONS SERVICE.

The States Relations Service represented the Secretary of Agriculture in his relations with the State agricultural colleges and experiment stations under the acts of Congress granting funds in support of the stations and of cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics; conducted investigations relating to agricultural schools, farmers' institutes, and home economics; and supervised the work of the agricultural experiment stations in Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico, and Guam. Its usual work was, however, modified and extended for the special purpose of coordinating the activities of the various agencies with which it cooperates and maintains administrative and advisory relations in a united effort to meet more effectively the conditions created by the war, more particularly in promoting food production and conservation.

The work and expenditures of each of the State experiment stations were examined and reported upon by a representative of the service, and various questions of general policy and future development of the stations were considered. Research projects, especially those under the Adams fund, received careful scrutiny and constructive criticism. As a whole the projects under this fund, as well as other work of the stations, are steadily becoming more thorough and more competent to yield definite answers to specific agricultural problems. Working in connection with the agriculture committee of the National Research Council, the service aided in enlisting a large number of the experiment stations in studies of various practical emergency questions. The experiment stations in Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico, and Guam maintained the more important of their usual lines of work, but concentrated their efforts on increasing the local production of food supplies.

In the development of the cooperative extension work progress was made in the more exact determination of the scope and limitations of the work and relationships imposed by the Cooperative Extension Act and related Federal and State legislation, and a more complete and satisfactory understanding of mutual privileges and obligations involved in cooperative enterprises was arrived at both with State institutions and organizations and with bureaus of the department. An added impetus was given to the already well-established policy of promoting local organizations to aid the county-agent and home-demonstration work. Extension workers conducted successful campaigns for increasing the acreage and yield of staple food crops, encouraging home gardening, promoting various forms of household thrift, especially canning and other means of preserving perishable foods, increasing the production of foodstuffs in the South without injury to cotton growing, securing an adequate supply of suitable containers for canning, and aiding farmers to secure labor, labor-saving machinery (tractors), seeds, and fertilizers.

Studies of the digestibility of cereal foods, fats, and oils, and of methods of cleaning textiles, were continued. The general campaign for food conservation was aided especially by supplying information in the form of brief popular bulletins, leaflets, and press articles regarding the rational and economical use of foods. A dietary survey of selected families in different parts of the United States was undertaken as a part of a general survey of the food resources of the country. Studies of various emergency and service rations were made in cooperation with or at the request of other departments of the Government.

Studies of the methods and subject-matter of instruction in agriculture, especially in secondary and elementary rural schools, with a view to improving such instruction and making it more practically useful, were continued as heretofore. Information regarding farmers' institute work was collected, tabulated, and published as usual. The collection of illustrative material for use in visual instruction was enlarged and improved.

OFFICE OF PUBLIC ROADS AND RURAL ENGINEERING.

This office began the administration of the Federal Aid Road act, by which the Government appropriated \$75,000,000 to be expended in the construction of post roads in connection with an equal amount to be provided by the States, and \$10,-

000,000 to be expended in forest road improvement, by a reorganization which included the establishment of 10 districts. As a result of the Federal act, all States now have adequate legislation to enable them to participate in the appropriation. Forty States submitted 143 projects, involving a total approximate length of 1,730 miles. One hundred and thirty-nine of these projects, aggregating 1,182 miles, have been approved, involving the expenditure of \$3,455,573.76 of Federal funds; 34 projects, 197.74 miles in length, involving \$990,684 in Federal funds and \$2,225,944.74 total of all funds, have been completed, are under construction, or are ready for construction.

On National Forest roads there have been 1,245 miles of reconnaissance surveys, 202 miles location surveys, 652 miles preliminary investigations, 119 miles maintenance work, and 37 miles construction. The Kamas-Stockmore project, 38 miles long, extending from Kamas, Summit County, to Stockmore and Hanna, Duchesne County, Utah, is one of the projects completed. The Questa-Elizabethtown, in Carson National Forest, New Mexico, the Blewett Pass in Washington, and the Rabbit Ears Road in Colorado, also were completed.

The following experimental roads were completed: A bituminous gravel concrete road 4½ miles long between Alexandria and Gum Spring, Fairfax County, Va., and a surface-treated gravel road, about 2 miles, from Gum Spring to Mount Vernon, in the same county. Construction of the top-soil road through Chapawamsic Swamp, in Prince William County, Va., was nearing completion at the end of the fiscal year.

Two more of the post-road projects, 14 of which had been constructed, were completed—the Licking and Muskingum Counties, Ohio, 24 miles, and the McDowell County, N. C., 13.3 miles. The last of these roads, at Dubuque, Iowa, 19.2 miles, was nearing completion at the close of the fiscal year.

This Office continued educational work in supervising and constructing object-lesson roads, making surveys, and preparing plans of roads to serve as models for highway officials, planning model county highway systems, cooperating in improvement of national park and forest roads, collecting and disseminating information pertaining to road building

and maintenance, giving maintenance object lessons, advising in bridge work, furnishing engineers to supervise construction of object-lesson roads in the various States, making surveys, and preparing plans in a number of States.

The office published in a series of five bulletins the results of the 1914 census relating to mileage of improved and unimproved roads, taxation, revenues, and bond issues; published data relating to State highway mileage and expenditures, to automobile registration, and to the disposition of revenues derived therefrom; collected data in about 100 counties and townships to ascertain cost of operation, procedure in construction, types of road, character of materials used, systems, and methods of maintenance, to determine the weakness in local systems of management, and to form a basis for a series of publications dealing with local road construction, maintenance, and administration.

It published a bulletin upon the management, operation, and discipline and the results obtained in convict road camps, and another upon the results of the studies of an experimental road convict camp conducted in Georgia, to determine the efficiency, economy, and practicability of applying modern methods of penology, sanitation, health, and dietetics to the management of concist labor camps.

In the laboratories of the office, 1,345 samples of road material were analyzed or tested, and in a conference of State highway testing engineers and chemists called to meet in the office, standard forms of specifications for materials to be used in various types of road construction were recommended, as also were standard methods of sampling, testing, and reporting test results.

Experiments were conducted to determine the best methods of using water in irrigation, advice was given to farmers on engineering features of pumping equipment for irrigation, experiments were conducted for improvement of irrigation equipment, and a general campaign for the proper utilization and economy of water was instrumental in adding 100,000 acres to the irrigated area of California, the newly irrigated land producing good crops of wheat and barley.

A widespread campaign was conducted to reach individual landowners and induce them to improve by drainage lands which had produced only from 10 to 75 per cent of what

they could be made to yield. Particular attention was given to small wet areas on farms. Plans for eliminating such wet areas were made for 259 individual tracts, scattered in 19 States.

There were made ready for distribution plans of farm houses, a community building for use in rural communities, hollow-tile dairy barns, a hollow-tile general barn, a tile barn to suit northern conditions, milk houses, brick silos, wooden-hoop silos, hog houses, a cattle-feeding shed for northern and western conditions, a reinforced-concrete water tank, root and potato storage cellars, and sweet-potato curing and storage houses.

THE WORK OF THE BUREAU OF MARKETS.

Through the investigational and demonstrational work of the Bureau of Markets, extensive studies of the existing methods of marketing and distributing farm products, with a view to suggesting improvements and economies, were made. These studies include the methods of marketing such farm products as cotton and cotton seed; live stock, meats, wool, dairy products, and other animal by-products; grain. seeds, and hav; and the various fruits and vegetables. Investigations are made of the possibilities of cooperative purchasing and marketing organizations, uniform systems of accounts are devised and demonstrated, and many questions regarding the transportation of farm products and the more efficient utilization of cars receive attention. Reports were received and tabulated from practically all boat lines and express companies handling perishable fruits and vegetables regarding the number of shipments handled by them. Investigations covering the handling, grading, and packing of various farm crops also were made. Assistance was given to cities in improving local marketing conditions. Studies of the economic value of cold storage in the conservation of foodstuffs and methods of eliminating wastes both in storage and at the markets were conducted. The possibilities of foreign markets for American farm products under normal conditions were studied.

The bureau cooperated with the States in the employment of agents to study methods of marketing and distributing

farm products and to assist in coordinating marketing activities.

Studies of agencies which loan on mortgages and extend personal credit to farmers and studies of organized activity among farmers for credit improvement and other means of increasing farm credit also were made by the bureau. Investigations were made and assistance given in organizing various other cooperative associations.

In its service work the Bureau of Markets issued several series of daily and other reports. These have increased rapidly in number and in their usefulness to all engaged in the marketing of farm products. The scope of many of these reports has been enlarged greatly through the provisions contained in the food production act. They may be classified as follows:

- 1. Market news service on perishable fruits and vegetables (one daily and two weekly reports).
- 2. Market news service on live stock and meats (three daily, one weekly, and two monthly reports).
 - 3. Market news service on honey (biweekly reports).
 - 4. Market news service on grain and hay (biweekly reports).
 - 5. The Seed Reporter (monthly).
 - 6. Reports on the supply of wool (quarterly).
- 7. Reports on manufactured dairy products and oleomargarine (monthly).
- 8. Cold-storage holdings of apples, eggs, dairy products, meats, and fish (monthly).
- 9. Daily market reports on locally grown truck products, issued in cooperation with local agencies in different cities.

The enforcement or administration of three Federal laws has been intrusted to the Bureau of Markets: (1) Under the United States Cotton Futures Act, which became a law August 18, 1914, standards have been established for nine grades of white cotton, five grades of yellow-tinged cotton, and three grades of yellow-stained and blue-stained cotton. (2) The United States Grain Standards Act was enacted August 11, 1916. Under this act, official standards of the United States for shelled corn and wheat have been established and promulgated by the Secretary of Agriculture, and tentative grades are being considered for oats. The work of the inspectors licensed under the act is reviewed by a supervisor in each of the 35 districts into which the country has

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been divided. (3) The main purpose of the United States Warehouse Act, which became a law on August 11, 1916, is to establish a form of warehouse receipts for cotton, grain, wool, tobacco, and flaxseed, and to make these receipts negotiable as delivery orders or as collateral for loans. Thus far, rules and regulations for administering this act in respect to cotton have been issued.

THE SOY-BEAN INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED STATES.

By W. J. Morse,

Scientific Assistant in Forage-Crop Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.

EARLY HISTORY OF THE SOY-BEAN INDUSTRY.

THE rapid rise of the soy bean (also called soya and soia bean) to a crop of special importance in the world's commerce in the past few years is one of the most remarkable agricultural developments of recent times. It is a plant of ancient cultivation in China, Japan, and Chosen (Korea). (Pl. I, fig. 1.) The annals of Old China set forth the fact that the soy bean was an important food with the Chinese fully 5,000 years ago. When the ports of China were first opened to foreign commerce, the trade in beans and bean products was found to have been a long-established and flourishing institution. In value and in extent and variety of uses the soy bean is the most important legume grown in Asiatic countries. In addition to a very considerable utilization for human food in various ways in the Orient, large quantities are utilized by first extracting the oil and then using the cake for stock feed and as a fertilizer.

Near the close of the eighteenth century the soy bean found its way to Europe, its cultivation being recorded in England in 1790. It is mentioned in the United States as early as 1804. For several decades, however, it was regarded more as a botanical curiosity than as a plant of much economic importance. In 1875, Prof. Haberlandt began an extensive series of experiments in Austria with the soy bean and strongly urged its use as a food for both man and beast. Although considerable interest was aroused during the experiments, the soy bean failed to attain the success hoped for by the experimenter.

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Previous to the Russian-Japanese war China and Japan were not only the greatest producers but also the greatest consumers of the soy bean and its products. During the war the production of the crop was greatly increased throughout Manchuria. After the war, however, it became necessary to find new markets for the surplus beans, and trial shipments were made to Europe. The first attempts to introduce the soy bean and its products into European markets were generally unsuccessful because of the unsatisfactory condition in which the beans and cake were received, owing to poor shipping facilities. About 1908 a large trial shipment made to English oil mills was received in much better condition than previous shipments, and the results obtained were so satisfactory that larger imports were made.

Following this marked success in the utilization of the soy bean as an oil seed, its use extended rapidly to the Continent, and the importations of beans from Manchuria and Japan soon reached enormous proportions. The beans were utilized by extracting the 'oil, which was found valuable for various industrial purposes, leaving the bean cake for a cattle food. As the value of the oil and cake came to be recognized, new uses and markets were found, and the trade assumed such large proportions that the soy bean has become an important competitor of other oil seeds.

SOY BEANS IN THE UNITED STATES.

As previously stated, the soy bean was introduced as early as 1804, but it is only within recent years that it has become a crop of much importance in the United States. (Pl. I, fig. 2.) Until the present season it has been grown primarily as a forage crop, though a constantly increasing demand for seed for food and planting has led to the development of a very profitable soy-bean seed industry in many sections of the South and the corn belt. The large yield of seed, the ease of growing and handling the crop, the value of the beans for both human and animal food, and the value of the oil and meal all tend to make this crop one of great potential importance and to assure its greater agricultural development in America.

CULTURAL REQUIREMENTS.

The soy bean has about the same range of climatic adaptation as corn and can be grown successfully on nearly all types of soil. The cotton belt and the southern part of the corn belt are most favorably situated for the production of seed, although fairly profitable yields of seed have been produced farther north by some of the new improved early varieties. The yields of seed to the acre in various sections of the country range from about 15 to 25 bushels in the Northern States and from 25 to 40 bushels in the Southern States. The cultivation and handling of the crop are accomplished almost entirely by machinery in this country, the ordinary farm equipment meeting all requirements of the crop.

VARIETIES.

Varieties of soy beans are differentiated largely by the color and size of seed (Pl. II), though they differ in time required to mature, habit of growth, etc. At the present time about 20 varieties are handled commercially by growers and seedsmen, although more than 500 distinct varieties are known and have been grown by the Department of Agriculture on its testing grounds. The yellowseeded sorts are preferred for food and the production of oil and meal and include the following: Mammoth (late), Tokyo (late), Hollybrook (medium late), Haberlandt (medium late), Medium Yellow (medium), Mikado (medium), Ito San (early), Manchu (early), and Elton (early). For forage, the black and brown seeded varieties are most suitable and include Barchet (late), Biloxi (late), Peking (medium), Wilson-Five (medium), Virginia (medium late), Early Brown (early), and Black Eyebrow (early).

SOY BEANS AS FORAGE.

As already noted, the soy bean has been grown in the United States primarily as a forage plant, and as such it is a valuable crop in many ways. When cut for hay, one of its most common uses, the soy bean makes a very nutritious forage relished by all kinds of stock. Feeding experiments indicate that soy-bean hay is comparable to alfalfa or red-clover hay. As an ensilage crop combined with corn, the

soy bean is grown to a very considerable extent in the Northern States. This silage keeps well, is readily eaten by stock, and animals fed on it show good gains in flesh and milk production. One of the most profitable methods of utilizing the soy bean is as pasture for hogs, supplementing a corn ration. As a pasture crop, the soy bean is extensively grown in the Central and Southern States. Although not widely used as such, the soy bean has an important place among soiling crops. Having a high protein value, the crop is fed to good advantage with less nitrogenous crops, such as corn, sorghum, and millet.

The soy bean has many points of superiority over the cowpea. As forage it has a higher feeding value and is much easier to handle. In those sections where the cowpea has long been grown, the soy bean is gradually increasing in acreage and is taking the place of the cowpea in the farming systems to a greater extent.

SOY BEANS FOR OIL.

The soy bean was first utilized for the production of oil and meal in the United States about 1910 by an oil mill on the Pacific coast. The beans were imported from Manchuria, and the success of the industry is indicated by the continued production of the oil and meal and the increasing imports of soy-bean seed from Manchuria.

American-grown seed was first crushed for oil the latter part of 1915 by a few cottonseed-oil mills in North Carolina. A shortage of cottonseed and a surplus of soy-bean seed led to a rather extensive use of domestic-grown seed for this purpose. However, during the season of 1916–17 no domestic-grown beans were utilized for oil, owing to the extremely high price of seed. The cottonseed-oil mills of the South saw the possibilities of the soy bean as an oil seed, and many mills throughout the cotton belt contracted with planters for seed of the 1917 crop. This led to a considerable increase of acreage. Large quantities of Manchurian beans have been imported during the past few months and utilized by southern mills in the production of oil and meal.

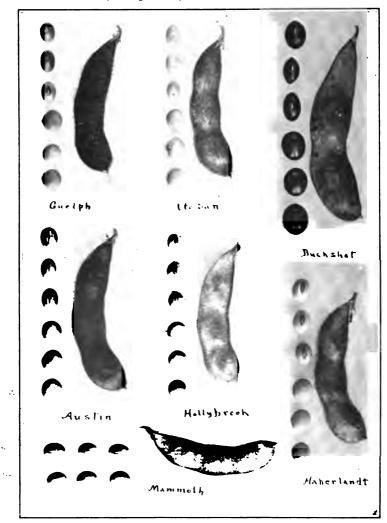
The utilization of the soy bean as an oil seed has not required any extensive changes in the equipment of the modern oil mills. The methods are similar to those employed with



FIG. 1.-TYPICAL SOY-BEAN PLANT.



FIG. 2.—A FIELD OF THE BILOXI VARIETY OF SOY BEANS GROWN AT BILOXI, MISS.



PODS AND SEEDS OF THE MOST GENERALLY GROWN VARIETIES OF SOY BEANS.



FIG. 1.—LARGE BLOCKS OF FRESHLY MADE BEAN CURD, "TOFU," READY TO BE CUT UP INTO SQUARES AND SOLD TO THE HOUSEWIFE.

Photographed by F. N. Meyer, Agricultural Explorer, U. S. Department of Agriculture.



FIG. 2.—LARGE BAMBOO TRAY OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SOY-BEAN CHEESE OF THE DRIER TYPE.

Photographed by F. N. Meyer, Agricultural Explorer, U. S. Department of Agriculture.



FIG. 1.—A DARK ROOM OF EVEN TEMPERATURE WHERE WOODEN TRAYS, FULL OF BEAN CURD, ARE PILED.

This is another method of preparing soy-bean cheese. Photographed by F. N. Meyer,
Agricultural Explorer, U. S. Department of Agriculture.



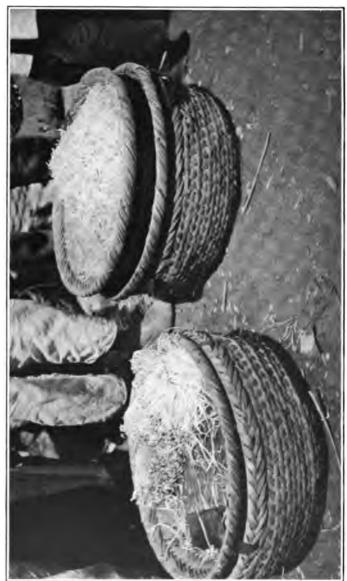
FIG. 2.—LARGE EARTHEN JARS FULL OF SQUARES OF BEAN CURD, WHICH ARE COVERED OVER WITH SPICED BRINE AND SOY SAUCE.

After several months' curing a bean cheese is formed, which can be kept for many years. Photographed by F. N. Meyer, Agricultural Explorer, U. S. Department of Agriculture.



VIEW OF A COURTYARD FULL OF COVERED POTS OF FERMENTED SOY BEANS AND BRINE, FROM WHICH SOY SAUCE IS MADE.

Photographed by F. N. Meyer, Agricultural Explorer, U. S. Department of Agriculture.



THE BASKET ON THE LEFT CONTAINS SPROUTED SOY BEANS WHICH ARE SOLD AND USED AS A GREEN VEGETABLE.

Photographed by F. N. Meyer, Agricultural Explorer, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

other oil seeds, such as cottonseed and linseed. According to data obtained from different mills, 1 ton of soy-bean seed yields from 28 to 31 gallons of oil and about 1,600 pounds of meal.

The oil extracted from the soy bean in many respects resembles cottonseed oil, though it dries more rapidly. This oil has a good color, has but a faint odor, and is rather palatable. New trade uses are being constantly found for soy-bean oil, and it has become an important competitor of other vegetable oils. It was first used in the United States in its crude state, principally in the manufacture of soft soaps. In the search for new oils to replace linseed oil for paint purposes, partly or wholly, soy-bean oil was found most suitable. Paint grinders are using successfully large quantities of this oil in the manufacture of certain types of paint. Manufacturers of butter and lard substitutes are using considerable amounts of soy-bean oil in their products. Other uses for which this oil is employed are in the manufacture of explosives, linoleum, varnish, and foodstuffs.

Soy-bean oil has been studied with other oils by the Office of Home Economics and found to compare favorably with the more common table oils with respect to digestibility. In view of the rapid improvement in the process of refining this oil, there seems to be scarcely any use to which oil is put in the manufacture of foodstuffs in which soy-bean oil may not eventually be found to have an important place.

SOY-BEAN MEAL

The soy-bean cake, remaining after the oil is expressed, is ground into meal and used in the manufacture of foodstuffs, for cattle feed, and as a fertilizer. The meal or flour produced from American-grown yellow varieties is bright yellow in color when fresh and has a sweet, nutty flavor. Samples of meal from different sources range from 46 to 52 per cent protein and from 5 to 8 per cent oil.

As a human food, soy-bean flour has been used in the United States principally as a special article of diet and sold by companies manufacturing special foods of low starch content. The flour or meal can be successfully used as a constituent of bread, muffins, biscuits, or pastry. Extensive

tests have been conducted by the United States Department of Agriculture with soy-bean flour in the making of bread and pastry. In these various food products about one-fourth soy flour and three-fourths wheat flour has been found to be the proper proportion. In some of the pastry products, however, as much as one-half soy flour can be used. During the past year the use of soy-bean meal has gained in popularity on account of the many palatable products that may be made from it.

The value of soy-bean meal as a stock feed for producing meat, milk, and butter is well established by practical experience, supplemented by carefully conducted experiments made in both Europe and America. In European countries soy-bean cake ground into meal is used largely for feeding cattle. It is one of the cheaper of the highly nitrogenous feeding stuffs and is therefore one of the more economical feeds for balancing rations deficient in nitrogen. Owing to its high content of protein, the meal should be used with the same precautions as are observed with other highly concentrated feeds, to avoid digestive troubles. As yet, soybean meal is not used extensively in the United States as stock feed. When the value of the meal in the production of beef, milk, and butter becomes properly recognized, there will doubtless be a large market for it as feed.

Although large quantities of soy-bean cake have been imported into the United States during the last few years, little has been heard of its use in the manufacture of commercial fertilizers. Considerable quantities of meal produced from crushing American-grown beans in 1915–16 were utilized by manufacturers of fertilizers, and during the past few months meal from imported beans has been taken in large quantities for this purpose. While soy-bean meal has a high value as a fertilizing material, a more economical practice would be to feed the meal to live stock and apply the resulting manure to the soil.

SOY BEANS FOR HUMAN FOOD.

In Asiatic countries, especially China and Japan, the soy bean and the various food products made from it are so largely consumed that it is second only to rice in importance as a food crop. The soy bean is eaten to only a very small extent like other beans; but in China and Japan it is elaborated into a great variety of products, all having a high percentage of protein and making a well-balanced diet when eaten in connection with the staple food, rice. Some of these products are said to be eaten at every meal and by rich and poor alike. Of these numerous preparations, only one, "shoyu," or "soy sauce," has been introduced to any extent in other countries. It is quite possible that some of these products would appeal to the American taste and with proper exploitation become established on the American market.

Although the soy bean as an article of human food has attracted attention from time to time in the United States. thus far it has been used but little except as a special food for invalids. The beans contain only a trace of starch and are highly recommended as a food for persons requiring a diet of low starch content. During the past year, however, much interest has been manifested in the possibilities of the soy bean as a staple food. Many schools of cookery and domestic science throughout the country have conducted experiments rather successfully, utilizing the dried beans in the manner of the navy bean. As a result, the dried beans can now be purchased in the markets in nearly all of the large cities. The variety and palatability of the forms in which the bean can be served make it a very desirable article of food, and it may be expected to grow in favor as it becomes better known.

DRIED BEANS.

The mature or dried beans of the yellow-seeded varieties may be utilized in making numerous palatable and nourishing dishes. When prepared like the ordinary field or navy beans, the soy beans should be boiled slowly, with a small amount of soda added to the water; otherwise they tend to become hard and tough. The boiled beans may be used in bean loaf and bean croquettes; in fact, in the same recipes as boiled navy or field beans. During the season of 1916 about 100,000 bushels of American-grown soy beans were packed as baked beans by several canning companies in the Central and Eastern States. The soy beans may be mixed to good advantage with the field or navy beans for baking, using two-thirds soy beans and one-third navy beans.

When properly roasted and prepared, the dried beans of any of the varieties make a good coffee substitute. Those fond of cereal beverages pronounce it equal to many of the preparations on the market.

In China the beans are soaked in water and roasted, the product being eaten after the manner of roasted peanuts. This method of preparing the beans is improved by soaking the beans for about 12 hours in a 19 per cent salt solution, boiling slowly for about 30 minutes, and then roasting to a light-brown color. The yellow-seeded and green-seeded varieties are preferable, as they make a product of better appearance.

GREEN BEANS.

When soy beans are three-fourths or more grown, the seed makes a most palatable and nutritious green vegetable. As such it may be used much as is the green pea or the Lima bean. The pods are somewhat tough and not desirable to eat. The green beans are rather difficult to shell, but after cooking in the pods for about five minutes they shell out very easily. These beans may also be canned, like green peas, and they thus make an excellent green vegetable for the winter. One large canning company has successfully packed the green soy beans.

A few hills of either the green-seeded or the yellow-seeded varieties, in successive plantings, may be grown in the garden as a green vegetable for the summer and fall and for canning.

SOY-BEAN MILK.

If the dried beans (yellow or yellowish green varieties) are soaked for a few hours, then finely crushed (as in a meat grinder) and boiled in three times the amount of water as of bean material for about 30 minutes, a milky emulsion is obtained which is very similar in appearance and properties to cow's milk. This liquid, separated out by means of a very fine sieve or through a cloth filter, is the soybean or "vegetable" milk used so extensively in China. Soy-bean cake, after the oil is expressed, or whole soy-bean meal can be utilized quite as well as the whole bean in the manufacture of the milk. When the meal is used,

about seven times as much water is added as there is meal, and the mixture is boiled for about 10 minutes.

Soy-bean milk has a rather strong characteristic taste and odor which may be masked by the addition of a small quantity of coumarin or vanillin. This "vegetable milk" can be used successfully in numerous preparations, such as breads and cakes, in creaming vegetables, in milk chocolate, and in custards. If allowed to remain in a warm place the milk becomes sour, like animal milk, and in that form may be employed just as is sour milk or buttermilk. In Japan a concentrated or condensed milk is obtained by evaporating the soy-bean milk in a vacuum. This condensed vegetable milk, though not so light in color, resembles in nutritive value and keeping qualities condensed cow's milk.

After separating the milk from the solid material, the residue is still very rich in nutritive substances. It can be dried and used for cattle feed or possibly made into a meal or flour for human consumption.

SOY-BEAN CHEESE.

The addition of magnesium or calcium salts (about a 1 per cent solution) to soy-bean milk when hot precipitates some of the proteid substances, forming a grayish white curd which settles out, leaving a yellowish watery liquid. This curd, after being drained and pressed, represents the tofu, or bean curd, which is so extensively eaten and forms the basis of numerous fermented, smoked, and dried cheeses in China and Japan. (Pls. III and IV.) Tofu is made fresh daily and is a staple article of diet of oriental peoples. In many cities of the United States having a large Asiatic population, fresh bean curd generally may be found in the Chinese markets. Although the fresh curd, or tofu, is tasteless, it is a highly nutritious food and no doubt could be elaborated by the American housewife into a variety of palatable dishes.

SOY SAUCE.

Soy or shoyu sauce is a dark-brown liquid prepared from a mixture of cooked and ground soy beans, roasted and pulverized wheat (barley is sometimes used), salt, and water. This mass is inoculated with a culture known as rice ferment (Aspergillus oryzae) and left in casks to ferment from six months to a year or sometimes longer. (Pl. V.)

In odor and taste this sauce suggests a good quality of meat extract, though perhaps more salty and a trifle more pungent. Soy sauce is largely consumed by the Chinese and Japanese, being used in cooking and as a relish or condiment to increase the flavor and palatibility of the diet. This product may well serve as the basis of sauces of the Worcestershire type and as a flavor with many American vegetable dishes.

The manufacture of soy sauce is conducted on a large scale in China and Japan, and to some extent in India. The yearly production of Japan is said to amount to nearly 2,000,000 barrels. The brewing of this sauce has also become a well-established industry in Hawaii. Although there are no factories in the United States, considerable quantities of the sauce are imported annually, and it can be obtained at Chinese stores in most of our cities.

SOY-BEAN SPROUTS.

Several species of beans are sprouted and used as a green vegetable by the Chinese. (Pl. VI.) Soy beans are used to a very considerable extent for this purpose, as these sprouts are larger and firmer than those of most other legumes. Bean sprouts can be used as a home winter vegetable, for the dried beans are sprouted easily in a short time under proper conditions of heat and moisture. It is quite possible that sprouted soy beans utilized in various vegetable dishes would appeal to the American taste.

POSSIBILITIES OF THE SOY-BEAN INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED STATES.

The large annual importations of soy beans, soy-bean oil, and soy-bean cake into the United States during the last few years, as shown in the following table, indicate a condition favorable to the establishment of various industries utilizing the soy bean and its products.

Quantity and value of soy beans, soy-bean cake, and soy-bean oil imported into the United States, 1910 to 1917, inclusive.

Year.	Soy beans.		Soy-bean cake.		Soy-béan oil.	
	Quantity (pounds).	Value.	Quantity (pounds).	Value.	Quantity (pounds).	Value.
1910					Not stated.	\$1,019,842
1911			b 2, 115, 422	\$59,626	41, 105, 920	2, 555, 707
1912			b 2, 416, 052	64,350	28, 019, 560	1,576,968
1913			7,004,803	93,002	12, 340, 185	635, 8 83
1914	1,929,435	\$49,507	3, 163, 269	38, 255	16, 360, 452	830, 790
1915	3, 837, 865	87,306	5, 975, 592	64, 307	19, 206, 521	899, 819
1916	3,003,065	78, 963	10, 468, 001	108,081	98, 119, 695	5, 128, 200
1917	5, 344, 334	132, 572	11,760,935	136,064	162, 690, 235	11,410,600

compiled from reports of Department of Commerce, Bureaus of Foreign and Domestic Commerce and Navigation, U. S., 1910-1917.

The demand for soy-bean oil, especially in the manufacture of soap and of butter and lard substitutes, is keen, and its possibilities in the manufacture of varnish and paints are very great. It is now a strong competitor of other vegetable oils, and the demand for it is constantly increasing, both in this country and in Europe. When the meal becomes properly recognized as a feed material in the dairy and stock sections, there will be practically an unlimited market for it, while as an oil seed the soy bean offers an excellent opportunity to the South as a cash crop for the planters and a source of oil and meal for the cotton-oil mills, especially in the boll-weevil sections.

The importance of legumes as a source of protein for human food is becoming more generally recognized each year. In view of its richness in nutrients and the extent to which it is assimilated, and in view of its low cost in comparison with other foods, it would seem that the soy bean, with its products, should take high rank among our leguminous food crops and be more generally known and utilized as a staple food throughout the United States.

b Includes bean cake or bean stick, miso, or similar products, with duty, 40 per cent.

PRESENT STATUS OF THE PEANUT INDUSTRY.

By H. C. THOMPSON,

Horticulturist, Office of Horticultural and Pomological Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.

THE rapid growth of the peanut industry during I recent years is one of the striking developments that have taken place in the agriculture of the South. While peanuts were introduced into the United States in the early days of colonization, they did not become of commercial importance until about 1870. From that time until about 1900 the growth of the industry was gradual, but since then the production of peanuts has increased by leaps and bounds. In 1889 the production was 3,588,143 bushels, while the Twelfth Census shows that in 1899, 516,654 acres were planted to peanuts, with a yield of 11,964,109 bushels of nuts valued at \$7,270,515. In 1909, 869,887 acres were planted to peanuts and the yield was 19,415,816 bushels valued at \$18,271,929. From these figures it will be seen that as the production increased, the value per bushel also increased. Since 1910 the acreage planted to peanuts has increased at an even more rapid rate than in the preceding 10 years. From figures secured by the Bureau of Crop Estimates it is evident that over 2,000,000 acres of land were planted to this crop in 1917. The crop of 1916 was double that of 1909, and even with this large increase the price paid for peanuts produced in 1916 was higher than in any previous year of normal production.

The very rapid increase in the acreage and production of peanuts has been due to the development and improvement of machinery used in growing and handling the crop, to increase in the knowledge of the value of the peanut as food for man and beast, to the development of new uses for the crop, and to the need for money crops to take the place of part of the cotton crop in regions seriously infested with the boll weevil.

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GROWING THE CROP.

In the early days of peanut growing the crop was planted in the garden or in small patches in the field and the work of planting was done almost entirely by hand. With the increase in demand for peanuts the acreage increased and attention was given to the development of labor-saving implements and machinery. At the present time a large part of the planting is done by means of peanut planters. These machines open the furrow and drop the peanuts and cover them at the same operation, while with the hand-planting method it is necessary to open the furrow with a plow or other implement, drop the nuts by hand, and then cover them with a cultivator or some similar implement.

The method of cultivation of the peanut has also undergone some changes which have reduced the cost of the operation. The greatest reduction in the cost of cultivation has been brought about by the use of the weeder and large cultivating implements. Many large growers run a weeder over the peanut field before the plants come up and again just after they break through the surface. This reduces the work of cultivation, as it destroys the weeds before they have become established and allows the peanuts to get ahead of Instead of using the small one-horse cultivator many growers now use a two-horse implement which cultivates one or two rows at a time. The old method of cultivating with a one-horse cultivator entails a wasteful expenditure of time and man and horse labor and should be discontinued where it is practicable to use larger implements. One man with two horses and a gang cultivator will do as much work as two men and two mules or two horses using one-horse cultivators. When it is realized that peanuts are cultivated from three to six times it can be readily seen that a great saving may be effected by using large implements.

HARVESTING.

Even greater improvements have been made in harvesting and thrashing peanuts than in the growing of the crop. In the early days of the industry the plants were pulled by hand or plowed out with a one-horse plow. The plow is still used to a large extent, but many large growers employ a machine similar to the potato digger. One of these machines, pulled by three or four work animals, will dig 8 to 12 acres a day. In addition to lifting the plants, the machine shakes off most of the soil and leaves the peanuts lying on the surface of the ground. With the plow it is necessary to free the plants of soil by hand, which adds to the expense of harvesting.

There has been less change in the method of stacking peanuts than in most other operations. In fact, the method now commonly used by the best growers has been employed for many years. The main points to be kept in mind in stacking peanuts are to keep them off the ground, to protect them from rains, and to cure them slowly. In new regions peanut growers often try a different method of curing peanuts, but after one or two failures they adopt the practices of the best growers. Many farmers, new to peanut culture, dig the peanuts and leave them to dry thoroughly on the ground; then rake them up with a horserake and stack them in the same way as cowpeas. method is a poor one, because many of the leaves are broken off in handling after the peanuts are dry, thus losing the most valuable part of the hay, and when the vines are dried quickly the nuts wither and the pods discolor. peanuts are stacked within a few hours after being dug, the nuts continue to draw nourishment from the vine and fill out properly and both the nuts and hav cure with a good color.

PICKING AND THRASHING.

Formerly all peanuts put on the market were picked from the vines by hand. This was tedious and expensive work, as a man or woman could pick only a few bushels per day and the nuts had to be separated from the trash. As long as peanuts had to be picked by hand the industry remained small, but with the invention and use of the mechanical picker and the adaptation of the grain thrasher for thrashing peanuts the development was very rapid. A picking machine will pick 200 to 400 bushels of peanuts per day. In addition to removing the nuts from the vines the machine has stemming and cleaning attachments which remove the small stem and separate the nuts from the soil and trash

In these machines the picking is done by dragging the vines over a horizontal frame covered with wire mesh. As the vines are dragged back over the frame the nuts drop through the meshes, and rubber brushes attached to an endless belt acting on the under side of the frame brush the peanuts off. The bottom of the machine is made of slats, to allow the soil to sift through. After the nuts are removed from the vines they pass through the stemming device, where the stems are cut off; then they go through the cleaning attachment and into the bagger. This type of machine removes the nuts from the vines with a minimum of breakage. The picking machine is rather frail, however, and many of the parts are easily broken; furthermore, the capacity is limited and the machine can not be used for other crops.

The ordinary thrashing machine will thrash 400 to 600 bushels of peanuts a day, but unless equipped with a special cylinder and run very slowly many of the pods are cracked and broken. However, with the Spanish peanut, which is sold mostly as shelled goods, the cracking of the pods is not very serious. In regions where oats, wheat, and rye are grown, the thrashing machine is quite often used for peanuts, because this machine can also be used for thrashing the grain crops.

CLEANING AND SHELLING.

The development of machinery for the cleaning, grading, and shelling of peanuts has been a very important factor in the growth of the peanut industry. Until machinery was available, the peanut market was largely restricted to the sale of roasted peanuts, and as these were not properly graded and cleaned the demand was limited. At the present time practically all of the peanuts put on the market in any form, except those sold to the oil mills, go from the farm to the cleaning and shelling factory, where they are prepared for sale for roasting or for the manufacture of peanut products. The large nuts, represented by the Virginia Bunch and Virginia Runner varieties, are thoroughly cleaned, graded, and polished, and the best grades are sold for roasting in the shell. The smaller pods of these varieties and those that are discolored are usually shelled and the nuts put on the market in that form. The percentage of nuts of the large varieties put on the market in the shell depends on the relative demand for shelled and unshelled nuts. As the demand for shelled nuts increases, a larger proportion of the peanuts are shelled. The so-called "Jumbo" peanuts are those picked out by hand as they pass over the picking tables.

The small-podded varieties, represented by the Spanish and African, are practically all shelled before being put on the market, except those used in oil mills. In the cleaning and shelling factory the nuts are first cleaned to remove the soil adhering to the pods and to get rid of the sticks and trash. After the cleaning, the pods are separated with reference to size, for convenience in shelling. The nuts are then shelled and run through machinery to separate the shells from the peas. The cleaned shelled nuts are separated into three grades, known as No. 1, No. 2, and No. 3. The No. 1 grade consists of the large unbroken kernels, the No. 2 of the split and broken kernels, and the No. 3 of the finely broken and badly shriveled kernels commonly known as "pegs."

The cleaning and shelling of peanuts is an industry which is most economically carried on in large, well-equipped fac-At the present time most of the cleaning and shelling is done in a small number of factories, which, however, represent a valuation of millions of dollars in buildings and equipment. Most of these factories are located in Virginia. but with the development of commercial peanut production in other regions plants are being built elsewhere. It is desirable to have plants located as near as practicable to the producing areas in order to reduce the transportation costs. At the present time Texas, Alabama, Georgia, and Florida are each producing more peanuts than Virginia, so it would seem that shelling and cleaning plants should be located in those States. During the past few years several factories have been built in Texas, but no large ones have been erected in the other States.

A ton of farmers' stock Spanish peanuts will yield 1,300 to 1,400 pounds of shelled goods. In shipping peanuts from the farm to the cleaning and shelling factory the producer and the consumer pay freight charges on 600 to 700 pounds of hulls which are of no special commercial value. With the

Virginia Bunch and Virginia Runner varieties the percentage of hulls is still larger. In many cases peanuts are shipped from the farm to factories hundreds of miles away, and some of the nuts after being cleaned and shelled are sent back into the same territory. This adds materially to the cost to the ultimate consumer.

PEANUTS USED FOR ROASTING.

Roasted peanuts are sold in every city, town, and village in the country, and for this reason this is the best known form By many this is thought to be the only form in of use. which peanuts are sold in large quantities. While enormous quantities of peanuts are sold for roasting in the shell, probably less than 25 per cent of the total crop grown is used in this way. The Virginia Bunch and Virginia Runner are the only varieties used to any great extent as roasted peanuts, and these two varieties constituted only about 44 per cent of the total crop in 1916. Large quantities of these two varieties are used in making salted peanuts, peanut candy, and peanut butter, and in the manufacture of various kinds of confectioners' and bakers' goods. During the past few years some of the low-grade shelled nuts of the Virginia varieties have been used for making oil. However, it is probable that more peanuts are sold for roasting in the shell than for any other single peanut product.

In addition to the roasted peanuts sold in the shell, large quantities are marketed in the form of salted peanuts. In practically every city, town, and village salted peanuts are for sale in 5 and 10 cent packages or in penny slot machines. While salted peanuts are nearly always sold in small quantities, the aggregate amount is very large and is increasing rapidly.

THE PEANUT-BUTTER INDUSTRY.

There are no statistics available on the total amount of peanut butter made in this country, but the quantity is large and increasing every year. Three of the large peanut-butter factories made in 1916 over 7,000,000 pounds. One of these factories, which made a little over 4,000,000 pounds of peanut butter in 1916, increased its output 50 per cent in 1917. In addition to the three factories mentioned, there are several other large ones and several hundred small

factories making peanut butter in this country. It is probable that 4,000,000 or more bushels of peanuts were used in this way in 1916.

In the manufacture of peanut butter only the best-grade nuts should be used and the work should be done in a sanitary manner. Most manufacturers secure shelled nuts from the cleaning and shelling factories. These nuts are roasted in specially built machines, similar to those used for roasting coffee. From the roaster the nuts are dumped on a carrier or truck, the hopper of which has a perforated bottom for receiving and cooling the roasted nuts. No definite rules are followed in the roasting, but for shelled nuts the temperature should be about 320° F. The time required to roast a batch is about 30 to 35 minutes, but the stage of roasting must be determined by the judgment and experience of the operator. As a rule the nuts are not given as high a roast for peanut butter as for roasted peanuts. If the roasting process is continued too long or the temperature is too high, the butter will have a dark-brown color and a burned or bitter taste.

After the peanuts are roasted and cooled they are blanched. The blanching consists of removing the red skins and is done by machines, having a set of brushes revolving against a corrugated plate. After passing through the blanching machine the nuts are carried over screens in front of a fan in order to separate the skins and germs from the clean meats. The clean meats are then run over picking tables on a canvas belt. Women seated beside the tables remove any decayed or discolored nuts. Some factories are equipped with a mechanical stoner which removes small pebbles and pieces of stone that may have escaped the process in the cleaning factory.

After the peanuts are blanched and cleaned they are fed through chutes to a supply hopper above the grinder. Where two grades or varieties of peanuts are used, they are usually mixed as the peanuts are fed into the hopper. Some factories use a blend of Virginia and Spanish in equal parts or 2 to 3 parts Spanish to 1 part Virginia, depending on the judgment of the man in charge. It is believed that a blend of the two types of peanuts mentioned makes a better product than either variety alone.

As the peanuts are fed into the grinder 1½ to 3 pounds of a good grade of dairy salt are added to every 100 pounds of nuts. The peanuts should be ground to a fine granular form rather than to a pasty consistency. If too coarse, the butter is thought to be gritty; if too fine, it is pasty and the oil settles out to some extent.

Peanut butter can be made in the home by using a good food grinder. The nuts may be bought already roasted or they may be roasted at home. If roasted at home, care should be used to prevent scorching. After roasting, the nuts should be shelled and blanched. The blanching can be accomplished by rubbing the nuts over a fine-mesh screen, in order to loosen the skins. The meats can be cleaned by pouring them from one vessel to another in the open where the wind will blow out the red skins. The rubbing of the nuts to loosen the skins will also loosen the germ from the kernel. The germs may then be sifted out by using a screen with small round holes. The germs are taken out because they cause the butter to get rancid quicker than it would without them. After the meats are blanched and cleaned they are passed through a food chopper and ground as fine as possible. The meats are often ground twice, the salt being added either before or after the first grinding. When made at home, the actual cost of peanut butter will not exceed 15 cents a pound even at the present high cost of peanuts.

Peanut butter is a wholesome and highly nutritious food, and as this fact becomes better known the product is increasing in popularity. Peanut butter contains one and a half times as much protein, over three times as much fat, and three times as much fuel value as round steak. In addition to this, peanut butter contains about 17 per cent of carbohydrates, mostly starch, while steak contains no carbohydrates. These figures show that, pound for pound, peanut butter has a much greater food value than round steak.

MANUFACTURE OF PEANUT OIL.

While peanut oil is one of the more important of the world's food oils, until very recently it has not been an important article of food in the United States. During the



A HILL OF SPANISH PEANUTS.

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The peanut, in common with other plants of the bean family, has the power to gather nitrogen from the air in the soil and store it in the nodules on the roots. In harvesting, effort should be made to leave as much of the root in the ground as possible.



FIG. 1.—PEANUT DIGGER.

Many of the large producers of peanuts use a machine digger for harvesting peanuts.

This machine is a great labor saver, as it will dig 8 to 12 acres per day.



FIG. 2.-STAKES USED IN STACKING PEANUTS.

In stacking peanuts it is important to keep them off the ground. This is accomplished by starting the stack on the cleats nailed to the stake 8 to 12 inches from the ground.



FIG. 2.—A COMPLETE STACK.

The stack is built up as high as a man can conveniently reach and is then topped off with a bunch of dry grass or weeds.



The peanut stack is built up of successive layers of vines, the pods kept well to the center against the stake. The center of the stack is kept higher than the outer edge, to shed the rain.



FIG. 1.—THE OLD WAY—PICKING PEANUTS BY HAND.



FIG. 2.—THE NEW WAY—PICKING PEANUTS BY MACHINERY.

The peanut picking and thrashing machines have been important factors in the development of the peanut industry. One of these machines will turn out from 200 to 600 bushels in a day, depending upon the type and size.



SCENE IN A PEANUT-BUTTER FACTORY. In the room shown in this illustration over 10,000,000 jars of peanut butter are put up annually.

year ended June 30, 1914, the United States imported 1,332,108 gallons of peanut oil, which was valued at \$915,939. Prior to that time very little peanut oil had been manufactured in this country. Because of the shortage of animal fats and vegetable oils created by the war, both the importation and manufacture of peanut oil have increased. In the year ended December 30, 1916, the United States imported 2,089,801 gallons of peanut oil and manufactured 3,488,649 gallons. This is the largest amount ever used in this country. In all probability, with the increasing world shortage of fats and oils and with the large crop of peanuts grown in this country in 1917, the output of 1917–18 will be much larger than that of any previous season.

In the United States most of the peanut oil has been made from unshelled nuts. This oil, unless refined, has an earthy taste and is not desired as a table oil. In addition to this, when the unshelled nuts are pressed, besides a refining loss there is a considerable loss of oil due to absorption by the shells. The peanut shells contain practically no oil, but after pressing with the peanut meats the cake, including the hulls, contains 6 to 9 per cent, depending upon the efficiency of the mill. This represents a considerable loss of oil, as a ton of farmer's stock Spanish peanuts contains about 600 pounds of hulls. If these hulls absorb 6 per cent of oil there will be a loss of 36 pounds. or nearly 5 gallons of oil, for every ton of peanuts crushed without shelling. It is claimed by oil millers that it is impossible to press the shelled nuts and make a cake containing as low as 6 or 7 per cent of oil, but this is done in Europe with less efficient presses than are used in this country.

In Europe peanut oil is made from shelled nuts which are blanched, degermed, and thoroughly cleaned before being pressed. This makes it possible to manufacture a high-grade edible oil which does not need to be refined. The unrefined oil has a good color and a distinct peanut flavor, while the refined product is almost colorless and has a bland taste.

The method of making peanut oil in Europe is different from that employed in this country. In Europe the shelled, blanched nuts are ground and pressed without

heating, so as to secure a high-grade edible oil. After about half of the oil has been squeezed out, the cakes are taken out of the cloths, reground, heated for a few minutes, and again pressed. This second pressing yields an oil of lower grade than that secured from the first pressing, and it is sold as a low-grade edible oil or a high-grade soap oil. A third pressing is often made, and in some mills a fourth. After each pressing the cake is reground and reheated before the next pressing. The European method of manufacture might be adopted by a few mills in this country in order to put a high-grade edible oil on the market and at the same time produce a cake which could be used as feed. This is especially desirable at the present time. It is doubtful whether it will be necessary to make more than two pressings in American presses—the first a cold press and the second pressing made after grinding and heating the cake from the first pressing. The demand for high-grade edible oil is limited, but it would be worth while to make a special effort to supply this demand and to stimulate the consumption of oil. It is believed that the consumption of peanut oil could be greatly increased by placing on the market a high-grade edible oil at a price slightly lower than that commanded by the best brands of olive oil.

In the further manufacture of peanut oil in this country the cotton-oil mills will undoubtedly be used to a large extent, as they are already equipped with much of the necessary machinery and do not get enough cottonseed to keep them working throughout the year. These mills should be employed in making peanut oil before capital is invested in building and equipping new mills. The mills now in existence are ample to take care of the present supply of cottonseed and the peanuts and soy beans grown for oil purposes. In addition to the equipment used in cotton-oil mills, it is important to add machinery for cleaning peanuts, even if they are to be pressed without shelling. If the nuts are to be shelled and blanched, it will be necessary to add shelling and blanching machinery as well as conveyors, fans, graders, etc. The same kind of machines used in peanut cleaning and shelling factories would be satisfactory for the work in the oil mills.

The manufacture of peanut oil has had a wholesome effect on the peanut market, as many dealers have disposed of their low-grade shelled nuts to oil mills. This has forced buyers of peanuts for other purposes to take the better grades, and the price and quality have been raised. Any old nuts that have become rancid or injured by insects can be used in making a high-grade soap oil, thereby taking these goods off the market. In addition to this, the manufacturers of peanut butter and other products are able to sell to the oil mills at a good price the germs and the red skins separated in the blanching process.

USE OF PEANUTS BY CONFECTIONERS AND BAKERS.

While no figures are available to show the quantity of peanuts used in the making of candies and cakes, this amount is undoubtedly larger than that used for any single product except roasted peanuts. Practically all confectioners and bakers use peanuts in making their products. Peanuts are used in peanut bars, peanut brittle, chocolate-coated peanuts, and chocolate bars, as well as in other types of confections, and also large quantities for salted peanuts. Bakers use peanuts in considerable quantities in making fancy cakes of various kinds. A large part of the shelled peanuts sold by cleaning and shelling factories goes to confectioners and bakers.

USE OF PEANUTS AS FEED FOR LIVE STOCK.

The peanut is one of the more important crops grown in the South for feeding to hogs, thousands of acres being grown for that purpose. Few, if any, crops will produce more pounds of pork on an acre of land or produce it at a lower cost per pound. A good crop of peanuts will produce at least 400 pounds of pork per acre, and if the hay is harvested before turning the hogs into the patch it will practically pay the cost of growing. In addition to the profit on the pork, the crop-producing capacity of the soil will be materially increased, due to the addition of humus and nitrogen. This is very important, as much of the land in the peanut-growing sections is deficient in both. By making successive plantings of peanuts at intervals of 15 to 30 days it is possible in most sections

of the South to have peanuts available for the hogs from midsummer until the end of November. In pasturing hogs on peanuts it is best to confine them to small areas by using portable fences, rather than to let them have the run of the whole field.

In some sections of the Southern States the peanut is planted between the rows of corn, either at the time the corn is planted or at the last cultivation. After the corn is harvested cattle are turned in to eat the fodder and peanut tops. Hogs are then turned in to eat the peanuts. In this way the stubble and roots of the peanuts supply humus, and most of the nitrogen stored in the nodules on the roots is left in the soil.

Hogs fattened exclusively on peanuts do not yield a very desirable grade of meat and lard, as the meat is soft and the lard oily. This can be remedied to a large extent, however, by feeding corn and other feeds along with the peanuts.

In addition to growing peanuts to be fed in the field, the crop can be cured and stored in barns or sheds for winter feeding. The entire plant is a very valuable feed for nearly all classes of live stock. Peanut hay, consisting of the entire plant after the nuts are removed, has a much higher feeding value than the grass hays and about the same value as clover hay. The average yield of peanut hay is about two-thirds of a ton per acre. With 2,000,000 acres of peanuts, the estimated acreage for 1917, there would be produced about 1,333,000 tons of peanut hay with a value of at least \$20,000,000.

The peanut is especially valuable as a crop to be grown for feed in the drier sections of the Southwest, where it is impossible to grow corn to advantage. Peanuts will withstand drought better than most farm crops. In some regions where corn will not produce 5 bushels per acre, peanuts have proved very satisfactory. The crop is of value also on land carrying a considerable percentage of alkali.

Peanut meal, a by-product from peanut-oil manufacture, is a highly concentrated feed. The meal made from shelled nuts contains about 45 per cent protein, 6 to 9 per cent fat, and 23 to 24 per cent carbohydrates. Meal made from the

unshelled nuts contains about 30 per cent protein, 6 to 9 per cent fat, and 21 to 22 per cent carbohydrates. The meal from shelled nuts has about the same feeding value as cotton-seed meal and can be used for the same purpose. With the shortage of feeds high in protein the demand for peanut meal at a good price will probably exceed the supply. It is especially valuable for dairy cattle and hogs and has been used to furnish a large percentage of the protein in a home-mixed horse feed. In fact, one large farmer has been using peanut meal for several years for feeding work horses and claims that it is the cheapest protein feed he has ever used. It can be used in quite large quantity in connection with other feeds without injurious effects. When fed to hogs peanut meal does not produce soft pork, and for this reason it is preferable to raw peanuts.

Peanut shells, which accumulate in large quantities at cleaning and shelling factories, are sometimes ground with low-grade peanuts and sold for feed. The shells, however, have practically no feeding value, as they consist largely of crude fiber.

All peanut feeds should be sold on the basis of their protein, fat, and carbohydrate content rather than on the ton basis. For example, 750 pounds of meal made from shelled peanuts has practically the same feeding value as 1,350 pounds of meal made from unshelled nuts. These amounts represent the meal left as a by-product from peanut oil manufactured from a ton of farmers' stock Spanish peanuts. Dealers selling peanut meal should show on the label whether it is made from shelled or unshelled nuts; in fact, this is required by law in some States.

FUTURE OF THE INDUSTRY.

The future of the peanut industry is very bright, as the demand for peanuts for all purposes is increasing very rapidly. This is especially true of peanut oil, owing to the shortage of fats and the decrease in cotton production as a result of the spread of the boll weevil. Probably the greatest opportunity for increasing the acreage of peanuts is for stock-feeding purposes. Nearly every farm in the peanut-growing section could grow to advantage an acre or several acres, depending on the size of the farm, for feeding to hogs. With

the urgent demand for pork and pork products and the present high prices paid, there is every incentive for the southern farmer to increase his production of hogs. It is not suggested that farmers restrict the planting of other crops for hog-feeding purposes but supplement these with peanuts for use during the latter part of the season.

As the peanut is coming to be considered a standard farm crop in most of the Southern States and as the consuming public is learning to appreciate its value as a food, there is every reason to believe that production will continue to increase. It is believed that in the near future the production will be reckoned in hundreds of millions of bushels. This statement is based on the fact that production increased from about 3,500,000 bushels in 1899 to over 40,000,000 in 1916, and at the same time the price per bushel increased.

FEDERAL AID TO HIGHWAYS.

By J. E. Pennybacker, Chief of Management, and L. E. Boykin, Assistant in Road Economic Investigations, Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering.

OAD construction and maintenance in the United States involve an annual outlay of over \$300,000,000, a sum which, if capitalized at 5 per cent, would represent an investment of \$6,000,000,000. Even in this day of amazing figures this sum is not unimpressive. There are to-day something over 4,000,000 motor vehicles and some 25,000,000 horses and mules making use of the public roads more or less, so that on a conservative estimate the motive power available for highway transport far exceeds 100,000,000 horsepower. The tonnage haul on the public roads is estimated at 1,500,000,000 to 2,000,000,000 ton-miles. That this latter figure is not excessive can easily be gathered from a study of the freight-traffic movement on railroads, which now amounts to upward of 1,000,000,000 tons annually. A six-mile haul for 250,000,000 tons would produce the minimum of the ton-mileage thus estimated for the public roads. It is well known that the railroads are unable to carry the enormous traffic now offered for transportation, and it is to be expected that the public roads will from now on have added to their present traffic burdens such freight as may be shifted to them to relieve railway congestion. It is beyond question that for passenger haul the public roads are used to a greater extent than the railroads. These impressive conditions have been created within the span of a single generation. As recently as 1906 there were only 100,000 motor vehicles in the United States, compared with the 4.983,000 of 1917, while in 1904 the total outlay in money and labor on the public roads aggregated only \$80,000,000, compared with some \$300,000,000 for 1917. Thus, the public

roads have been changed with bewildering rapidity from the status of the purely local utility to that of the utility of national importance and scope.

NEW PROBLEMS TO BE MET.

This astonishing development brought in its train many perplexing problems. The types of construction long standard were found wholly unable to sustain metor traffic; maintenance provisions, both as to amount of funds and methods, were pitifully inadequate; the local system of taxation was found to be not only inadequate, but wholly inequitable. In short, it has been necessary to relegate to the scrap heap in a measure the method of construction and maintenance and the systems of management which have prevailed since the days of MacAdam. Skilled engineers and other specialists were needed to devise new methods of construction and maintenance; classification was necessary to insure the construction of those main channels through which it was found that traffic tended to flow, and steps had to be taken to obtain more funds and effect a readjustment of the cost burdens. These necessities could not be provided by counties and townships, and it became essential that they pool their facilities and look to the State for direction.

STATE HIGHWAY MANAGEMENT.

As far back as the early nineties the State governments had begun in a small way to help the counties solve their highway problems. This State participation first took the form of small State appropriations to aid the counties in road construction and at the same time to provide them with engineering advice through the maintenance of State highway departments. In 1893 the Federal Government also began an educational work for road betterment by establishing the Office of Road Inquiry in the Department of Agriculture to investigate systems of road management and to give advice on the subject. The State governments soon found that the difficulties were multiplying too rapidly to be met by small measures, and gradually State highway departments have been strengthened and given supervisory in lieu

of merely advisory powers, while the trend has been toward the making of larger State appropriations, the designation of definite State highway systems, the control of such systems by the State, and, finally, the creation of State funds for the maintenance of State highway systems under State control. Most of this development has come within the past 10 years. Although the trend in all of the States is toward a policy of centralization in the handling of their road problems, at present, almost every stage of progress from extreme localization to a highly centralized control is represented in the 48 State systems of highway management.

FEDERAL COOPERATION.

The Federal Government, coincident with this development in the several States, gradually broadened its investigatory and educational field as indicated by the fact that, while the appropriation for the work amounted to only \$10,000 in 1893, the appropriation for the fiscal year 1918 is \$405,400, exclusive of amounts to be expended for irrigation, drainage, and rural engineering investigations, and an appropriation for a road laboratory building.

Soon after the general adoption of the State-aid policy became assured, the agitation for Federal aid to highway construction became more pronounced and led to the introduction at each session of Congress of hundreds of measures calling for Federal appropriations. In 1912 a joint committee of the Senate and House of Representatives was created for the purpose of investigating the subject of Federal participation in highway work, and that committee made an exhaustive report to Congress in the following year. In 1913 a standing committee on roads was established in the United States House of Representatives.

On July 11, 1916, President Wilson approved a measure generally known as the Federal Aid Road Act, which carried an appropriation of \$75,000,000 to aid the States in the construction of rural post roads and \$10,000,000 to be expended for the construction and maintenance of forest roads. The enactment of this measure rounds out the most comprehensive scheme of cooperation in road building ever put into effect by any nation.

PROVISIONS OF FEDERAL AID ROAD ACT.

The appropriation of \$75,000,000 for rural post-road construction was made available at the rate of \$5,000,000 for the fiscal year that began July 1, 1916, \$10,000,000 for the next year, \$15,000,000 for the third, and so on for five years, ending June 30, 1921. The \$10,000,000 for forest roads was made available at the rate of \$1,000,000 pear year, beginning July 1, 1916. A sum not to exceed 3 per cent of the post-road appropriation may be used by the Secretary of Agriculture for administering the provisions of the act.

The apportionment of the post-road appropriations to the States, after deducting the administration fund, is based upon area, population, and the mileage of rural delivery and star routes, each of these factors having a weight of one-third.

The Federal funds may be expended only for construction, must not exceed 50 per cent of the total estimated cost of the road, and in no case be more than \$10,000 per mile, exclusive of bridges of more than 20-foot clear span.

In order that a State may receive the benefits of the postroad provisions of the Federal act, it must have a State highway department, and the construction on which Federal funds are expended must be done under the direct supervision of that department. An amount at least equal to the Federal funds must be made available by or on behalf of the State. The Federal act requires as a condition precedent to participation by any State that the legislature of that State shall assent to the terms of the Federal act. The respective States in their turn customarily require certain conditions to be met by the counties. These conditions usually involve raising of county funds, the establishment of certain guaranties as to road maintenance, and the taking of certain administrative steps contemplated by the State highway law. In most cases the State highway department deals directly with the counties, but in some States the highway department also cooperates with the township. The counties require certain action by the township as a result of the county cooperation with the State. Thus the Federal act directly or indirectly involves, in some degree at least, the exercise by each governmental unit from the township to the National

Government of some function in the general scheme of cooperation. The Secretary of Agriculture, however, who is charged with the administration of the Federal act, deals only with the State highway department, and thus the State, in meeting the Federal requirements, acts for the counties wherever their interests are involved.

A considerable amount of misunderstanding seems to prevail as to the means by which Federal aid may be secured. Many county officers and private citizens submit to the Department of Agriculture inquiries or applications looking to the obtaining of Federal aid for a local highway. To these inquiries and applications the answer is invariably made that under the terms of the Federal act itself the Secretary of Agriculture may deal only with the State highway department and that the initial power of selection of roads upon which Federal aid is to be expended rests with the State highway department.

OPERATION OF THE ACT.

That immediately following the passage of the Federal Aid Road Act money would begin to flow from the National Treasury into the States with a resultant widespread activity in the actual construction of roads seemed to be a somewhat general expectation. That such a result was not possible could easily have been ascertained by the most casual consideration of the terms of the act itself, which necessitated an immense amount of preliminary work. First, the Secretary of Agriculture was required to apportion the Federal funds for the first fiscal year to all of the States. and in doing this it was necessary that he ascertain from the Postmaster General the mileage of rural delivery and star routes, as these formed one of the factors of apportionment. Next the act required the establishment of rules and regulations. This task called for careful preparation in which the views of each of the State highway departments should be given due consideration. The act was approved July 11. 1916, and 10 days later, July 21, 1916, the certificate of apportionment was issued. The rules and regulations, prepared after a conference held in Washington with the State highway commissioners, were issued on September 1, 1916. It was necessary to ascertain which of the States were equipped with highway departments within the meaning of the Federal act, as cooperation could be only with States so equipped. This necessitated a most exhaustive investigation of State highway laws and a great deal of correspondence with State officials. When the investigation was completed it was found that 11 States were not equipped with highway departments and that the status of 5 others was doubtful. It was thus evident that new basic legislation was necessary in probably 16 States, while in many of the other States cooperation was impracticable without the passage of enabling State laws, since in some States direct supervision could not be exercised by the highway departments, and in others the requisite funds were not available nor could adequate maintenance assurances be given. In all of the States assent by the legislature was essential, except that the governor might assent pending the adjournment of the first regular session of the legislature held after the passage of the Federal act. It is therefore apparent that actual road construction could hardly have begun under the most favorable conditions before the opening of the season of 1917.

INCENTIVE TO CONSTRUCTIVE STATE LEGISLATION.

Results of far-reaching importance and of even greater potential value than the appropriation of Federal funds have already been accomplished by the Federal act through its influence upon State legislation. During the past winter more constructive State highway legislation has been placed upon the statute books than has ever been enacted in any similar period since the Republic was founded. The very conditions laid down by the Federal act as necessary to participation in its benefits operated most powerfully to bring about the establishment and strengthening of State highway departments, the placing of a vast amount of road construction under skilled supervision, the systematizing and correlation of road work so as to provide the improvements most needed to meet the requirements of traffic, the creation of large funds for construction and for maintenance, and the establishment in many of the States of definite provisions

insuring maintenance of highways from the date of their completion.

It is impossible to set forth within the limits of this article the salient features of the State legislation enacted as a result of the passage of the Federal Aid Road Act, but among the impressive results obtained may be mentioned the establishment outright of State highway departments in the States of Delaware, South Carolina, Texas, Indiana, and Nevada, and the strengthening of other State highway departments so as to remove all question as to the 16 States which were not qualified at the time of the passage of the Federal act. To-day every State in the Union is in a position to cooperate with the Federal Government under the Federal Road Act.

ORGANIZATION AND PROCEDURE.

To administer the provisions of the Federal act 10 district offices, each directed by a district engineer, reporting to the Director of the Office of Public Roads, were established. The 10 districts with the location of the district offices, the apportionment of post-road and forest-road funds, and a list of the district engineers are shown in figure 1.

The headquarters office has been divided into two branches, known as the engineering branch and the management branch. All of the activities of the organization, including the Federal aid post-road work, the forest-road work, the investigatory and educational road work conducted under the items forming part of the Agricultural appropriation act, and the irrigation, drainage, and rural engineering investigations are arranged under these two branches.

The procedure adopted calls for the submission of an application, known as a project statement, by the State highway department to the district engineer, who examines the road that it is proposed to improve and transmits the project statement with his recommendations to the Washington office. If the Secretary of Agriculture approves the project statement, the plans, specifications, and estimates are then submitted by the State highway department to the district engineer, who transmits them with his recommendation to the Washington office, and when they are found to be suit-

able for approval, a formal certificate to that effect is issued by the Secretary of Agriculture to the Secretary of the Treasury and the State highway department, and a formal project agreement is entered into between the Secretary of Agriculture and the State highway department. As the work progresses, or upon its completion, payment on a special voucher, approved by the Comptroller of the Treasury, is made of the Federal funds to the depository named in the project agreement.

Under the rules and regulations as adopted, a standard as to form and arrangement of plans, specifications, and estimates was required to be promulgated by the Secretary of Agriculture. This standard was prescribed and the date upon which it was to go into effect was set forward by several amendments, so that it applied only to projects for which project statements were submitted after September 30, 1917.

The testing engineers of the various State highway departments met with the representatives of the Office of Public Roads at Washington and tentatively agreed upon standard forms of specifications for materials, standard methods of sampling and testing materials, and reporting test results. A committee of the American Association of State Highway Officials, working in conjunction with the Federal representatives, prepared and submitted to the State highway departments standard specifications for the various types of highway, so that by voluntary cooperation marked progress has been made toward bringing about the adoption of efficient methods and the standardization of highway work so as to reduce the possibilities of inefficiency and of unproductive expenditure. This progress follows most logically the excellent and far-reaching results in the form of road legislation which has already been mentioned.

ACTUAL ROAD CONSTRUCTION.

The working season of 1917 marked the opening of the actual construction work under the terms of the post-road provision of the Federal act, as the necessary legislative and administrative work which has already been described made it impracticable to get construction projects under way at

an earlier date. At the close of January 31, 1918, there had been approved by the Secretary of Agriculture 253 individual projects, aggregating 2,849.48 miles and calling for an expenditure of Federal funds of \$7,324,721.72, and of State and local funds of \$9,917,143.70, making a total estimated cost of \$17,241,865.42. These projects represented applications from 44 of the States, so that up to that date only 4 States had not reached the stage of actual construction. Unquestionably the spring of 1918 will see Federal aid projects ready for construction in every State in the Union.

Every type of construction recognized by highway engineers as practicable is represented in the projects already approved. Of the total mileage of road involved in projects approved up to the close of January the percentages of the types of construction represented were approximately as follows: Brick, 2.62 per cent; cement concrete, 8.9; waterbound macadam, 2.95; bituminous macadam, 5.63; sand clay, 15.6; earth, 32.1; and gravel, 32.1 per cent. Somehow the impression prevailed in some sections of the country that the Secretary of Agriculture would only approve the higher types of road surfaces, such, for example, as brick, concrete, and bituminous macadam. The Secretary corrected this impression in a specific statement, issued to the public on February 17, 1917.

"There is not the slightest truth in such a report," said Secretary Houston. "This department, which is charged with the administration of the Federal Aid Road Act, has placed absolutely no restrictions, either direct or implied, upon the kinds of highways to be constructed. States may submit for approval any kind of road, even an earth road, and approval will be given if the construction be substantial in character, suitable for traffic needs, and meets the terms of the Federal act. To give State legislators and highway officials the impression that this department favors only costly types of road or discriminates in favor of any particular material, results not only in spreading misinformation, but in placing barriers in the way of States which wish to avail themselves of Federal aid in road construction."

DIFFICULTIES WHICH HAVE BEEN OVERCOME.

Many difficult questions have arisen from time to time in , the administration of the Federal act. The question which has given most concern and has been most difficult of solution has been in connection with establishing the status of each project as a rural post road within the meaning of the Federal act. As a result of the consideration of a large number of typical cases it has been ascertained that the four following classes may safely be considered post roads within the meaning of the Federal act: (1) Where the mails are actually carried on the road comprised in the project; (2) where the mails are not actually carried, but a reasonable prospect exists that they will be carried on the road comprised in the project within a reasonable time after its completion; (3) where an entirely new road on a new location is proposed to be constructed and where there exists a reasonable prospect that it will be used for the carrying of the mails within a reasonable time after its completion; (4) where the portion of a road not used for carrying the mails is composed of several or a number of short stretches constituting an unsubstantial or relatively small portion of the whole, and where it is determined that it would be uneconomical to build the portion of the road used for carrying the mails without at the same time constructing these small stretches not so used even though there is no prospect that they will soon be used for transporting the mails.

One of the difficult questions involved a determination of what basis of payment could be adopted by which the States

Explanation of figure 1.—Small vertical numerals, Federal aid post-road allotment, 1917; small slanting numerals, forest-road allotment, 1917; medium vertical numerals, total Federal aid post-road allotment for 5 years; medium slanting numerals, total forest-road allotment for 10 years; large vertical numerals, Federal road district numbers; • Federal road district headquarters; — Federal road district boundary.

District engineers and addresses.—1.—L. I. Hewes, Broadway-Yamhill Building, Portland, Oreg. 2.—C. H. Sweetser, Mills Building, San Francisco, Cal. 3.—J. A. Whittaker, 301 Tramway Building, Denver, Colo. 4.—E. O. Hathaway, Post Office Building, Minneapolls, Minn. 5.—J. C. Wonders, Douglas County Court House, Omaha, Nebr. 6.—J. D. Fauntleroy, Wheat Building, Fort Worth, Tex. 7.—J. T. Voshell, Post Office Building, South Chicago, Ill. 8.—J. T. Bullen, Bell Building, Montgomery, Ala. 9.—G. H. Miller, Federal Building, Troy, N. Y. 10.—H. K. Bishop, 515 Fourteenth Street NW., Washington, D. C. (Office of Public Roads and Bural Engineering).

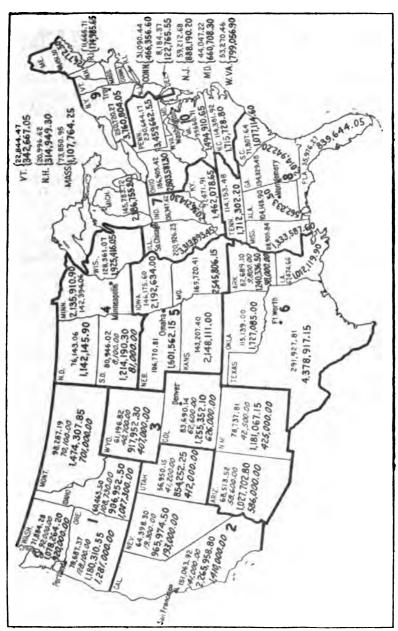


Fig. 1.—Map showing apportionment of Federal appropriation among the States. [For explanation of map, see bottom of opposite page.]

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could receive the Federal aid not only on contract work, but also on force account, day labor, and convict labor work. was realized that payment by way of reimbursement for amounts actually paid out by the States would involve an excessive examination of the accounts of the States and counties and burdensome requirements as to the showing of subvouchers and other evidence of payment, and would tend to embarrass the States in the making of final payments on projects if they were compelled to make the payments before the Federal aid could be secured. Furthermore, the reimbursement plan gave no assurance that actual results were being accomplished, but only that money had been paid out. It was finally determined to make payments on the basis of units of work performed at the unit prices set forth in the approved estimate. If the work should be awarded to contract. the contract prices would govern. This basis of settlement makes certain that the Federal Government will only pay for an actual showing of results accomplished and at the same time will avoid all necessity for passing upon State accounts and requiring supporting papers as evidence of payments.

On the whole, the Federal act now appears to be working smoothly, and cooperation with each of the 48 States along practical lines seems assured. Whether the application of the cooperative principle to this vast enterprise will produce the largest possible measure of benefit to the Nation can not yet be determined, but certainly if the difficulties of operation may be surmounted it should follow that the tremendous cumulative effort of all the forces of the Nation working to a common purpose should accomplish amazing results in the building of the Nation's highways.

THE SOURCES OF OUR NITROGENOUS FERTI-LIZERS.

By FREDERICK W. BROWN,

Assistant in Charge, Investigation of Fertilizer Resources, Bureau of Soils.

N ITROGEN is one of the most abundant elements on earth and at the same time normally by far the most costly of our fertilizer ingredients. This apparent paradox is explained by the facts that free nitrogen—that is to say, nitrogen uncombined with other elements—is of no use to plants, and that only with difficulty can it be made to combine artificially so as to be useful.

The existing emergency has served to bring sharply home to us our dependence upon fixed, or combined, nitrogen. We find ourselves confronted with the necessity of waging a great war and for that purpose producing vast quantities of powerful explosives. For the making of almost all modern explosives fixed nitrogen is essential. At the present moment tremendous tonnages of combined nitrogen are thus being used for munitions, to be released on the battlefield and pass back into the atmosphere as free nitrogen.

At the same time with this demand comes the necessity of raising more foodstuffs than ever before, that we may have a large export surplus to supply the needs of Europe. Increased acreage of food crops and increased bushels per acre are both essential in meeting this emergency. Increased bushels per acre require applications of fertilizer, and fertilizers are composed of phosphates, potash, and fixed nitrogen.

We have, then, at present an unprecedented demand on the nitrogenous materials of the world, a demand which is increasing daily and which the resources of the world are already being taxed to meet. Sources of supply which in normal times are used almost exclusively for fertilizer purposes are now being drawn on heavily for munitions, while our farmers, in the effort to produce up to the limit of their fields' capabilities, are calling for increased tonnages of

nitrogenous materials. This desire of our farmers to use more fertilizer should receive every possible encouragement. Unfortunately at present the abnormal demands by munition makers on the world's supply make it difficult to furnish the farmer with nitrogenous materials at reasonable prices. This condition is further accentuated by the high freight rates on imported materials.

USE AND EXTENT OF NATURAL DEPOSITS.

The only important natural deposits of nitrogenous material are the extensive beds of nitrate of soda occurring in the arid regions on the west coast of South America, mainly in Chile. This is the source of our Chilean nitrate, Chile saltpeter, nitre, or "soda," as it is called in some parts of the United States. The preservation of the nitrate salt in these beds is due to the fact that the country is practically without rain, since the salt is readily soluble in water and in a humid climate would long ago have been leached out of the rock.

The recovery of the nitrate is simple. The overburden of low-grade and worthless material is removed, and the richer, underlying rock is blasted out and then crushed, the nitrate salt is leached out with water, the resulting brine is evaporated, and the nitrate separated from the sodium chloride and other impurities in the rock and crystallized. Commercial sodium nitrate contains about 15 per cent of nitrogen; it is quickly soluble in water and, consequently, is almost immediately available for plants upon application to the soil. For this reason it is used as a top-dressing for the purpose of giving plants a quick start. It also enters extensively into mixed fertilizers as one of our most important nitrogen carriers. A considerable amount is also used in the production of sulphuric acid, which in turn is used to treat phosphate rock to give superphosphates.

In 1914, the latest year of normal consumption, 564,000 tons of nitrate of soda were imported, of which 162,000 tons were used for fertilizer purposes. In 1916, 1,200,000 tons came into the country and about 250,000 tons entered into agriculture. The greatly increased importations were due to demands by makers of munitions.

Only a small portion of the nitrate fields of Chile have been carefully explored and surveyed, and of known and surveyed deposits probably not more than a quarter have been mined. It is likely, therefore, that the Chilean deposits will be able to furnish nitrate in large quantities for many years to come.

PRODUCTION OF AMMONIUM SULPHATE.

A second great source of quickly available nitrogen is ammonium sulphate. All coal contains a small percentage of nitrogen. When coal is burned or when it is coked in the beehive oven, this escapes into the air as free nitrogen. When coal is coked in modern retort ovens, this nitrogen is recovered as a by-product combined with hydrogen in the form of ammonia. This by-product ammonia is then treated with sulphuric acid, and ammonium sulphate results. This is a dry, grayish powder, containing about 20 per cent of readily available nitrogen. Ammonium sulphate is one of our most important fertilizer ingredients. It is largely used in the preparation of mixed fertilizers, but in view of its solubility it could probably be advantageously used as a substitute for sodium nitrate as a top-dressing.

If all the coal now coked in this country were coked in by-product retorts we should have a supply of ammonium sulphate amounting to nearly 900,000 tons annually. In fact, we produced in 1916 only about 325,000 tons, since nearly two-thirds of our coke was produced in the wasteful beehive oven. It is gratifying to record, however, that the transition from beehive to by-product ovens has been proceeding rapidly in recent years, and a steadily increasing percentage of our coke is being made in a way which permits of the recovery of the valuable minor constituents in the coal. At present large quantities of by-product ammonia, as in the case of sodium nitrate, are going into the manufacture of explosives and the price has advanced very sharply.

USE OF ORGANIC AMMONIATES.

In point of tonnage one of our largest single sources of nitrogen for fertilizer purposes is cottonseed meal. This is the dried residue of the cotton seed after the oil has been extracted. It contains between 5 and 8 per cent of available nitrogen as well as small percentages of phosphoric acid and

potash. It is used very extensively throughout the South as a fertilizer material and 325,000 tons were used in 1914 by fertilizer manufacturers. In addition, a large tonnage was undoubtedly applied by the farmers direct.

In recent years the practice of feeding organic ammoniates, like cottonseed meal and tankage, has increased, and this reduces the amount available for fertilizer. The use of these organic substances as a feed for cattle should be encouraged, however, as in this way they are made to serve a double purpose, since a very large proportion of the fertilizing elements reappear in the manure. The value of cottonseed meal as a feeding stuff has long been recognized by European cattle raisers, and normally large quantities of this material are exported to countries like Denmark and Holland, where intensive dairying is practiced.

Any decided increase in the use by our farmers of organic nitrogen carriers will force us to look elsewhere for nitrogen for fertilizer purposes, and this fact lends additional importance to the investigations now being carried on looking to the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen.

Two important nitrogenous fertilizer materials, dried blood and tankage, are derived from slaughterhouse waste. Dried blood is precisely what its name implies. It carries from 10 to 13 per cent of readily available nitrogen, and has long been recognized as a valuable fertilizer ingredient. Tankage is the dried residue after the grease has been extracted from slaughterhouse wastes. Such materials as can not be used in the meat, leather, soap, glue, or bone industries find their way ultimately to tanks, where they are thoroughly cooked with steam. The grease is removed and the residue pressed, dried, and marketed as tankage, which contains from 6 to 12 per cent of nitrogen in readily available form.

Another important organic ammoniate is fish scrap. The capture and utilization of menhaden for fish oil and fish scrap has become an established industry on the Atlantic coast. The fish are taken in immense quantities in nets carried by steam trawlers and are treated in much the same way as slaughterhouse wastes, being cooked, freed from oil, and the residue pressed and dried. Fish scrap contains, in addition to about 8 per cent of nitrogen, about 5 per cent of

phosphoric acid. On the Pacific coast considerable fish scrap is manufactured as a by-product by using the wastes from fish-canning factories. In 1914 approximately 63,000 tons of fish scrap entered into fertilizer manufacture.

Such materials as fur, wool, hair, leather, hoofs, and horns all contain percentages of nitrogen, and in the industries using these materials large quantities of waste accumulate. The nitrogen in these materials is not readily available, so that they are not used in the raw state for fertilizer purposes. They are, however, treated by mixing with acid phosphate, the action of the acid rendering the nitrogen available. This mixture is known to the trade as base goods, and furnishes a considerable quantity of the nitrogen in mixed fertilizers. Bone, ground or steamed, though primarily a phosphate carrier, also contains varying percentages of nitrogen.

FIXATION OF ATMOSPHERIC NITROGEN.

Chemists have long recognized in the atmosphere about us a huge reservoir which must ultimately supply our increasing needs in the way of fixed nitrogen. A tremendous amount of research has been done on the problem of fixing this atmospheric nitrogen in useful form. Nature accomplishes the result by means of bacteria, particularly those forms which cause the nodules on the roots of leguminous plants. The Romans knew the value of legumes in a rotation and put the knowledge in practice without knowing why. We understand why soil conditions are improved by legumes, but are still confronted with the unanswered question of how bacteria fix the nitrogen.

The artificial fixation by chemical or electrochemical means is difficult and costly. Several methods are in actual operation and others are in the experimental stage of development. That the problem will be solved and cheap fixed nitrogen be made available for our farmers is as nearly certain as anything in the future can be called certain.

The three general processes now in operation are the arc, the cyanamid, and the synthetic ammonia processes.

The principle of the arc furnace is based upon the well-known fact that if the nitrogen and oxygen in the air are subjected to the action of an electric arc portions of the two

gases combine to form nitric oxide. Thus traces of nitric oxide can be detected in the air after a severe lightning flash.

Using this fact as a basis, electric furnaces of various types have been constructed for producing either a broad or a long electric arc and passing air through it.

Three types of such furnaces are now being commercially operated. The Birkeland-Eyde furnace draws out the arc by the action of magnets into a broad sheet of flame through which the air is passed. The Schoenherr type employs a long are produced by the blast of the passing air driven at high pressure up a steel cylinder. The Pauling furnace produces a fan-shaped flame by the action of the air under pressure between two diverging electrodes. A fourth type, the Kilbourn-Scott, employs three electrodes, and the air. entering under pressure below the arc, produces a coneshaped flame. This last type is reported to be in operation on an experimental scale in England.

Unfortunately the reaction of the nitrogen and oxygen in the electric arc is a reversible one, and unless the temperature of the gases is immediately dropped from about 3,000° C., the temperature of the arc, to about 1,200° C. the nitric oxide again reverts to free nitrogen and oxygen. This sudden drop in temperature is difficult to accomplish, and under the best operating conditions no arc process recovers more than 21 per cent of the entering air in the form of nitric oxide. For this reason large amounts of electric current are necessary per unit of nitrogen fixed, and arc processes can be operated commercially only where current can be generated in large amounts and very cheaply.

Owing to the topography of the country these conditions can be met in Norway, where both the Birkeland-Eyde and the Schoenherr processes are in operation on a large scale, the power being furnished by hydroelectric installations. The nitric-oxide gas is drawn into large towers, where it reacts further with oxygen and forms other oxides of nitrogen, after which it is blown through absorption towers, where it encounters water or dilute acid, and in this way weak nitric acid is formed. This is neutralized with lime and calcium nitrate formed. As marketed it contains about 9 per cent of nitrogen, and prior to the present war small amounts were exported to this country from Norway.

The Pauling process has been installed in several places in Europe where power is available at a cheap rate. A small installation for using this process was erected some years ago in South Carolina, but nitrate of lime from this plant has never entered the market in any quantity.

It is doubtful whether the arc processes in their present stage of development can be used successfully in this country, owing to the high cost of power. To develop the power in most of our streams is a very expensive undertaking, and even where conditions permit of the production of power at low cost, as at Niagara Falls, other industries as a rule stand ready to buy it at a price that makes its use for the arc process of nitrogen fixation impracticable.

The cyanamid process for fixing nitrogen involves the production of calcium carbide by melting a mixture of lime and coke in an electric furnace. The carbide is ground and again heated and pure nitrogen is forced through the mass. about 1,000° C. a reaction takes place and calcium cyanamid is formed, containing about 20 per cent of fixed nitrogen. Upon treatment with superheated steam, cyanamid gives up its nitrogen in the form of ammonia, which may then be oxidized to nitric acid or treated with sulphuric acid to produce ammonium sulphate.

The cyanamid process requires large amounts of cheap power, and so far has never been used commercially in this country. A plant on the Canadian side of Niagara Falls, operating under a long-term contract which insures it a limited amount of power at a cheap rate, has produced cyanamid commercially for some years, most of which has found a market in the United States.

The Haber process of nitrogen fixation involves the production of ammonia directly from its elements, hydrogen and nitrogen. If the two gases be compressed to 1.500 pounds to the square inch, heated to 600° C., and passed over spongy iron, a certain percentage of the mixture is combined as ammonia. This process and the cyanamid process have had very wide development in Europe, and especially in Germany, since 1914, owing to the demand for fixed nitrogen for explosives. Though the mechanical difficulties involved in the Haber process are great, the power cost is

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small, and it seems to offer possibilities for development in this country more attractive than either the arc or the cyanamid process. The Bureau of Soils has installed a synthetic ammonia plant at its Arlington laboratory, and is at present experimenting with the process, with the object of reducing the mechanical problems to the simplest form and determining the best conditions of pressure and temperature, and the most efficient catalyzers.

In addition to the above there are several processes which are not as yet operating commercially but which seem likely to be of importance in nitrogen fixation in the near future.

The Bucher process, which fixes nitrogen as cyanide, involves heating a mixture of carbonate of soda, coke, and iron in an atmosphere of nitrogen. Laboratory experiment has demonstrated the chemical feasibility of the process, but up to the present no satisfactory furnace for continuous large-scale operation has been devised.

Recently attention has been called to a new process, involving the use of carbide, which appears to have advantages over the cyanamid method. This is the Reid process, in which the carbide is produced by coking a mixture of ground coal and lime and reducing this lime-coke to carbide in a type of electric furnace which permits of the use of "off peak" power. By this is meant power available at most electric plants during that portion of each 24 hours when part of the power which the plant is capable of producing is not being taken by its regular consumers. Such power can always be had at very cheap rates. The Reid process nitrifies the carbide at a lower temperature than the cyanamid method, and by the use of a catalyzer reduces the time required for the nitrification process. Finally the nitrified product differs from cyanamid in that it gives off its nitrogen as ammonia under the action of waste or wet steam. It seems probable that by the economies effected this process may be able to operate successfully under American conditions.

CHEESEMAKING BRINGS PROSPERITY TO FARMERS OF SOUTHERN MOUNTAINS.

By C. F. Doane, Dairy Manufacturing Specialist, and A. J. Reed, Dairy Husbandman and Cooperative Extension Agent in North Carolina for the Dairy Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

A GRICULTURAL development is often delayed in isolated communities. Where communication with the outside world is difficult, farm practice changes very slowly. Until recently such was the case in many of the mountain districts of Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky. These districts have a total area of about 50,000 square miles, or a little less than that of the State of Wisconsin. Throughout large

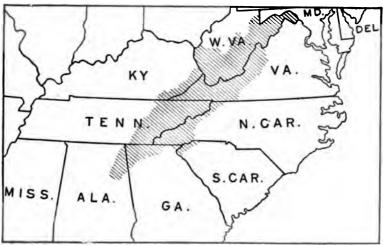


Fig. 2.—Souther Mountain District suitable for cheesemaking (shaded area).

areas of the mountain districts agricultural development has been very slow. Cheese production and the improvement of cows, however, appear to point the way toward financial and industrial independence for many parts of this area. (See Pl. XII.)

The wood and the land on which it grew were the only natural resources of many parts of the district, and there has not been sufficient business to encourage the building of railroads,

which, in such a mountainous region, can be constructed only at great expense. As a result many mountain communities are still remote from railroads and without ready access to city markets. Because of low cash income and poor transportation facilities, the people have traveled little and many of them have but a vague idea of the development of other districts. Being naturally a home-loving people, they have been loath to leave their mountain homes, and the country is now heavily populated. Unfortunately, until recently, the cash income has not kept pace with the gain in population.

AGRICULTURAL CONDITIONS.

On most farms the acreage of tillable land is small and the larger areas of rough and stony land are kept in grass and used as permanent pasture. Because of the large percentage of permanent pasture, cattle raising has been the principal industry. In a few localities very good beef cattle are produced, but ordinarily the cattle are a mixture of breeds, including many small and very inferior types. The largest farms contain about 160 acres, and only the best of them will support a herd of 20 cows. (See Pl. XIII.) On the smaller farms the only items of cash income are from the sale of a few dozens of eggs, small quantities of butter, and a few calves. The larger farms sell a little more and do a somewhat more varied business, but the average gross income of even the best of them is very small.

Forty years ago, when land was cheap, the population smaller, and the farms larger, living conditions were different. For each family there was then more land than is now available from which to make a living, and new land could be opened up at any time. Since then many of the farms have been divided among heirs, and as a rule the smaller farms now produce so little that there is no surplus to provide for education, road improvement, better live stock, or for rapid progress of any kind.

Where beef cattle of even an inferior quality are kept, conditions are much better than where the living is derived from crops alone. Feeding the crops to beef cattle has conserved soil fertility and made larger crop yields possible, but in many places present farming methods must be changed before much progress can be made. No progress can be made without an increased income. There must be a greater income per

man, per acre, and per cow. A change from an inferior type of beef cattle to a good quality of dairy cattle and the making of the milk into first-class cheese seems to offer the best solution of the problem.

CONDITIONS FAVORABLE TO CHEESEMAKING.

The first consideration of the adaptability of dairying to the southern mountain districts was given in 1913 by the cooperative extension agent of North Carolina. In a study of that territory it was found that the production of homemade cheese was an important industry in some of the mountain districts 25 years ago, and that many of the farmers still made small quantities of a poor quality of skim-milk cheese. As a rule the cows were low-producing scrubs, and the calves, which were allowed to run with them, did most of the milk-The calves were weaned at about three months of age, but the quantity of the milk was so small and the milk products had so little cash value that the cows were usually dried off as soon as convenient. Climatic conditions were found to be very favorable for the production of cheese, and as practically every house was built near a spring, facilities for cooling the milk were easily available. The fact that dairying requires more labor than the raising of stock cattle presented no serious problem, because labor was plentiful and cheap.

COOPERATIVE PLAN ADOPTED.

After a thorough study of conditions it was decided that the cooperative factory plan was best adapted to existing conditions, and a cooperative extension man qualified in cheesemaking was employed in October, 1914, to work among the mountain farmers of North Carolina.

Before the establishment of factories the problem of obtaining cheesemakers had to be met. It was at once apparent that thoroughly trained, high-priced cheesemakers could not be employed, because the supply of milk would not justify payment of the wages demanded. It was decided, therefore, to hire and train a bright young man from each neighborhood where a factory was to be built. In a very short time each man had received training enough to enable

¹ The extension men are cooperatively employed by the North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts and the United States Department of Agriculture.

him to manage a factory with what assistance the field agent could give him. This plan made it possible to get cheesemakers at wages that were not prohibitive and made each factory a purely local enterprise.

The method of making commercial cheese was presented to the farmers, but most of them were quite skeptical until demonstrations were given and the quality of cheese proved to be equal to that of "store cheese." This aroused some interest and the extension men received many insistent requests that the work be extended.

ESTABLISHMENT OF FACTORIES.

In the spring of 1915 the first cooperative company was organized at Cove Creek, Watauga County, N.C. The factory was completed and cheesemaking was begun June 5. The building was very small, being 14 by 16 feet, and the cost, complete with equipment, was only \$400. (See Pl. XIV, fig. 1.) About six weeks later another factory, fully equipped, was completed at Grassy Creek, N. C., at a cost of \$375. Though both factories were completed late in the season, each returned almost \$1,500 to the patrons before the end of the year. This was a net gain of more than \$1,200 in each case, because in previous years the total income from the sale of butter averaged less than \$300. Before the end of the year two other cheese factories were built. (See Pl. XIV. fig. 2.) Both proved to be successful, and the work soon spread to other sections of the State and to other States. To organize the first community required much work, but since that time it has been impossible to meet the demand for assistance and no solicitation has been needed to induce the people to put up new factories. At the present time larger factories are being built at a cost of from \$800 to \$1,000 each, which is subscribed jointly by 30 or 40 local stockholders. (See Pl. XV, fig. 1.) The salary of the cheesemaker and all other expenses connected with the running of the factory are met by the income from the sale of the cheese.

IMPROVEMENT IN DAIRYING METHODS.

Better care and more skillful feeding have resulted in a greatly increased milk production, while in some cases profits have been increased through the purchase of better cows. Though provision has been made for the better housing

of dairy cattle, very few new dairy barns have been built. The greatest improvement in this respect has been brought about through the remodeling of old barns, which, being well built, will last for many years. In most cases all they needed were new floors, more light, and better ventilation. So far as possible the improvements were made by the farmers themselves from supplies on hand or from materials produced in the neighborhood.

Cold springs cool the milk and keep it cool, enabling the farmers to deliver sweet milk to the factories. This makes it possible to manufacture cheese that compares favorably with that produced in any other section. Because of the good quality of cheese no difficulty has been experienced in disposing of it at satisfactory prices. The Southern States consume large quantities of cheese, thus insuring a ready market near by for the product of the mountain factories. This gives an advantage in freight rates that is more than sufficient to pay the cost of delivering cheese from remote mountain districts to railroad shipping points.

In converting the milk into cheese great care is taken to prevent waste, and the whey is now much in demand for feeding hogs. (See Pl. XV, fig. 2, and Pl. XVI, fig. 1.) When the cheese factories were first established the farmers considered the whey a worthless by-product, but finally they have come to realize its great feeding value and are doing what they can to see that its distribution is fair. Over the neatly arranged whey barrels at one factory the following sign may be read:

"Don't spill the whey. Spilled whey creates filth, filth breeds germs, germs cause disease, disease sometimes results in death, and death will lead to eternal hell for the man who takes more whey than belongs to him."

FACTORIES PROVING TO BE SUCCESSFUL.

As indicated in the rapid increase in the number of factories, the cheese industry in the mountain districts has received a good start and shows every indication of continued growth. The effort to increase cheese production has been along conservative and rational lines, and the

building of factories has been encouraged only in regions where climatic and other conditions render their operation feasible. The first year the factories were opened about \$3,000 worth of cheese was made and sold. In 1916 about \$30,000 worth of cheese was made in North Carolina alone. and during the year 1917 more than \$125,000 worth of cheese was made in the 34 factories now in operation in the mountain districts of North Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee, and West Virginia. Twenty-six of these factories were organized in 1916. All have been successful and each has shown a rapid growth from the day it opened. The cost of operation, added to what the farmers would probably have received for the milk if there had been no cheese factories. would amount to about one-fourth of the gross receipts; therefore it is fair to infer that three-fourths of the \$125,000, or a little more than \$90,000, is newly created wealth.

From ten grade dairy cows one farmer sold \$750 worth of milk and calves in seven months. This would be nothing unusual in a great dairy district, but before the introduction of cheese factories such incomes were not common in this section. A check for \$12 was sent to the wife of one of the directors for milk sold during the first month the factory was in operation. She could not understand how this could be, because formerly she had received less than \$2 a month, in trade, for the butter made and sold to the local stores. To get so large a check made her think there must be some mistake—otherwise she could not account for so much more money from so much less work.

STANDARD OF LIVING RISING.

The effect of the increased income from the mountain farms is already shown in a higher standard of living. (See Pl. XVI, fig. 2.) Farmhouses are being remodeled, better farm equipment of all kinds is being introduced, road improvement is already begun in many sections, and more interest is taken in educational work of all kinds. The introduction of cheese factories was only the first step forward, but these factories furnished the financial support for the movement that is slowly but certainly transforming many isolated mountain districts into prosperous farming communities.





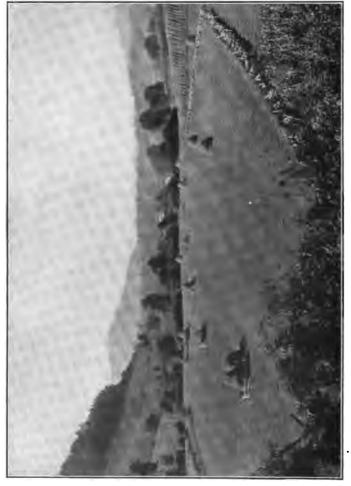




FIG. 1.—FIRST CHEESE FACTORY IN THE SOUTHERN MOUNTAINS, AT COVE CREEK, N. C.



FIG. 2.—BEAVER DAM CHEESE FACTORY, SWEETWATER, N. C.



FIG. 1.—ONE OF THE EARLIER COOPERATIVE CHEESE FACTORIES IN SOUTH MOUNTAINS, NEAR SPARTA, N. C.



FIG. 2.—HOGS RAISED ON WHEY FROM TWIN OAKS FACTORY



FIG. 1.—WHEY BARRELS IN DOORYARD OF MOUNTAIN CHEESE FACTORY.



FIG. 2.—A MOUNTAIN FARM TO WHICH CHEESEMAKING HAS BROUGHT PROSPERITY.

VALUE OF RECORDS TO THE FARMER.

By J. S. BALL,

Assistant, Office of Farm Management.

THE subject of farm accounts is one about which there are many misconceptions. We have been too prone to lay stress upon the mere formality; to make it appear that farmers were expected to believe that if they only had certain special kinds of books and forms the accounting would be easy and fruitful in results. Practically all farmers keep records of one kind or another, and the average farmer is not easily impressed with the notion that there is any special virtue in merely setting down columns of figures, yet there remains a class of writers on this subject who seem to think that if all farmers could only be persuaded to practice double-entry bookkeeping, all the problems of agriculture would be solved as by magic.

No one knows better than the practical farmer that there is nothing of the cure-all in the keeping of accounts on the farm. The practice will not of itself turn a poor farm into a rich one, a poor farmer into a good one, or losses into profits. Farm records, if accurately kept and intelligently utilized, are an aid to a better understanding and insight into one's business affairs, and are worth while in exact proportion to the accuracy and completeness of their recording and the pertinence of the use that is made of them. These are facts well known to thousands of farmers who keep accurate accounts and make good use of them.

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES.

In beginning record keeping it is of vital importance to have a clear understanding as to just what facts about the farm business should be shown by the records day by day and at the end of the year. It is as useless to start record keeping without having thought over and decided on what you intend to have the records show, as to begin digging a foundation and hauling lumber for a building without first

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deciding on the kind and size of structure to be erected. No farmer would be so foolish as to start his teams to a field to work without first making up his mind what crop he intended to grow thereon. It would be just as foolish to begin record keeping without a definite idea of what facts about the farm business the accounts are designed to bring out.

When this is thought over and decided upon the next step is to secure this information with the least amount of work and in the simplest way. The kind of books and forms used does not matter in the least, providing the records are complete and accurately kept—but a method is desirable that will promote facility in summarizing the records at the end of the year. The continued keeping of the accounts will often develop the most convenient form.

USEFULNESS OF ACCOUNTS.

Usefulness is the test of value. The use that is made of farm accounts is the measure of their value to the farmer, and the simpler the accounts kept by the beginner, the greater the chance for them to prove of use.

Among the oldest examples of farm records may be mentioned the practice of shepherds in ancient times, who counted their flocks by dropping pebbles in a bag. A primitive method, but an example in many instances well worth the time it took, for by its means definite facts were gained and losses avoided.

In sections of the country where corn is husked from the shock in the field, it is a common practice when hauling it in to keep tally of the number of bushels or barrels by marks on the side of the wagon box. This is another instance of a primitive record from which full benefit is realized, since the tally is used in divisions between landlord and tenant and is also the record by which the huskers are paid. (See Pl. XVII, fig. 1.)

SIMPLE ACCOUNTS.

Farm records may be roughly divided into two heads:

- 1. Records of happenings.
- 2. Records of money transactions.

Simple accounts of everyday happenings are often of great use. Every farmer makes a note when a calf is born

or a sow farrows. Many do so mentally only, but it is none the less a note. If such notes are written down in a way that makes reference to them easy, they become of much use in supplying needed information when memory fails. Notes recording other everyday happenings often prove useful. Among these may be mentioned the dates when animals are bred, men hired or discharged, accidents occur, pasture season begins and ends, first and last frosts occur, incubators are set, spring work begins and fall work ends, seed time and harvest occur, etc. Such notes as these when systematically recorded and constantly referred to are of much value. They enable one to take proper precautions as to feed and care of animals prior to the birth of young, thereby often saving both mother and offspring. Disputes with hired men as to wages are avoided by recording when they are hired, a wage agreement, and all amounts subsequently paid them. Accident records are of value when seeking redress for damages, pasture data when figuring on feed supply, and frost and other weather data in planning the year's work

RECORDS OF MONEY TRANSACTIONS.

A record of the cash received and paid out is made by many farmers, but all the benefits to be derived from such records are seldom realized. The most important use made of them in many cases is as a means of checking up bills when sent in, to see whether all payments have been duly credited. The realization of even this small part of their full value sometimes makes such records well worth while. There is no reason why every farmer should not have such a check on his business dealings, and losses can often be avoided by proving credits that have been overlooked by the storekeeper.

The cash account may be kept in any convenient form, but perhaps the simplest and most interesting way for a beginner is to use a diary. If this be done, part of the page may be used to record the daily happenings and the cash record made on another part of it, thus giving a complete record of the day, and in addition to the foregoing daily notes of personal affairs, ideas, and events may be jotted down, thus giving

 $^{^1}$ The use of a diary for farm accounts is fully illustrated and described in Farmers' Bulletin No. 782.

such records a personal touch, making them of more than mere business significance, and giving them color that will

Thursday Nov 12X
Weather, Heavy front, clear, cool Holstien heifer had a fine calf last night, abeifer, mast all white
aheifer, mast all white.
I went to town to day took in hog
saw Judge Helson and faid deforit.
The sorre mare stepped through hole
The sorre mare steeped mongh was
in bridge coming back. She's frith, lame.
Hured Fred Walley to Work by the year
for 3750 per month and Mse of house
near websters comer.
Joe is hauling com in today about as
fast as three men can husk it.
Got m 010 bushels today
Mheat is looking good . Late planting
didn't hurt it any
Soyland got to France ak.
wontan got to trave on.
Morrow Alexant Note: I as Auton B. L. of Espain
Paid Gall Hollow on the San
Sand Source tobers 2.15
Money Spent - Deposit on daubon Property 100000 Paid Itale Holley on The 5.00 Sack flour totace 5 2.15
Doed hog 179 lbs @18/2 cents \$33.11
777

Fig. 3.—Sample page of the diary type of farm record book. Many items of farm, personal, and neighborhood interest, as well as the farm and family cash account, recorded in such a way as to give desired data and make the record not only of value in a practical accounting way, but also as a reference book of farm and neighborhood happenings.

make them of interest in the years to come. (See fig. 3.) Any information wanted at the end of the year may be assembled from a diary account book in a few hours.

TABLE I.—An example of farm cash records summarized for a year's business on an eastern North Carolina diversified farm.

Source of income or expense.		ount.	Per cent of total.
RECEIPTS.			
Dairy herd:			-
Milk sold	52, 185. 24		ł
Cows sold (5)	198. 20		İ
Calves sold (4)	80.00		1
Breeding fees	10.00		ļ
Beef and hide	27.16		
Total from dairy herd		•	5
Hogs and pigs sold		242 . 16	} '
Chickens sold	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	6.00	
Income from live stock		2, 748. 76	51
Cotton	586.00		13
Tobacco	1,039.25		22
Truck crops	49.80		1
Income from crops		1,675.05	3(
Old machines and implements sold	22.65		
Rentals received for implements	31.25		İ
Received for work done for others	68. 74		ł
Wood sold	157.15		
Miscellaneous income		279.79	(
Total farm cash income		•	100
Money borrowed	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1,000.00	
Total money received	·····•• ·	5, 708. 60	
Expenditures. Dairy herd:			
Cows bought (8)	845.00		
Calf bought	25.00		ł
Dairy feeds	1,320.86		ł
Miscellaneous	23.65		
Total for dairy herd		2, 254. 51	4
Hogs bought (2)		43.35	
Cockerels bought (2)		2.00	
Total expenditures on live stock		2, 209. 86	4.
Pertilizer	349. 57		
Seed	88.09		
Twine, canvas, etc	29.68		
Thrashing, grading, picking	48.92		
Total expenditures on crops.	.	516.26	1

Table I.—An example of farm cash records summarized for a year's business on an eastern North Carolina diversified farm—Continued.

Source of income or expense.		Amount.		
EXPENDITURES—continued.				
Paid hired hands	\$654.43		1	
Veterinary and shoeing mules	1			
Man and mule labor expenditures		\$681.53	13	
New buildings and improvements				
Repairs of buildings, fences, etc	176.96			
New machinery bought	423. 51			
Maintenance of implements	58. 47			
Equipment expenditures		985.48	19	
Interest on borrowed money	427.27			
Taxes	66. 81			
Cutting wood	58.43			
Telephone, stationery, etc.	64.75			
Miscellaneous expenditures		617. 26	12	
Total (arm expenditures	ļ	5, 100. 39	100	
Household and personal expense		532. 50		
Total money paid out	ļ ⁻	5, 632. 89		

When the year's record is made the cash accounts can be assembled under headings (see Table I) that will show exactly what branch of the farm activities produced the dollars and what each required in the way of cash expenditure to keep it going.¹ Some farmers are apt to judge of the importance of the various farm projects by the time it takes to put them through. To such, a complete cash record for a year, properly assembled, will be an eye-opener. Often seemingly unimportant things on the farm, such as the flock of poultry, produce nearly as much net cash as the obviously important. The year's cash summary helps the farmer to get a better perspective of these things.

In using such records as an aid to future plans, hasty conclusions should not be drawn, nor should snap judgments be taken. The fact that the hogs or the corn crop brought in the most net money last year is no reason for assuming that all the activities of the farm henceforth should be

¹ A complete method of assembling the year's data is fully described in Farmers' Bulletin No. 661, entitled, "A Method of Analyzing the Farm Business."

devoted to the sole purpose of hog or corn raising. It may be that the keeping of cows was partly responsible for making the hogs so productive of net cash, or that the growing of wheat, clover, or other crops in rotation with corn made the latter crop much more profitable than it would have been if grown alone. Similar conditions will be met with on all farms, and therefore no sudden changes should be made on the basis of what a few accounts may show.

On the other hand, a single year's figures will occasionally indicate that something is radically wrong; will show where the net expenses of one farm enterprise is a great drain on the net cash returns made by the others. All phases of such an enterprise should be carefully studied and unless the losses can be assigned to some reason, such as a bad season, temporarily adverse market conditions, epidemics, or similar unusual conditions, it may often be dropped with profit.

Comparison of the annual figures year by year is another source of profit from the use of accounts, since by such comparison a true perspective and insight into the make-up of the business is gained.

USES OF AN ANNUAL INVENTORY.

The term "inventory" is used to designate a list of property, and such a list, made annually, is a most important and useful record. In any system of accounting the inventory is absolutely essential, as upon it is based the division of one year's business from another.

A farm inventory is simply a statement showing what the land, buildings, equipment, live stock, supplies, and produce on hand are worth at the time the inventory is made, together with amount of cash on hand and money owing to and owed by the farmer. It is a list of farm property and farm debts. (See Table II.) It corresponds to the "stock taking" which every merchant does periodically.

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TABLE II.—A sample farm inventory, showing in a general way how this valuable record is prepared.

		April 1,	1916.		April 1,	1917.
Items of property.	Num- ber.	Rate.	Valuation.	Num- ber.	Rate.	Valuation.
Real estate: Farm of 120 acres						
(105 tillable), including value						
of improvements			\$9,600.00	J	·····	\$9,600.00
Live stock:						
Cows dry and in milk	. 17	\$60.00	1,020.00	14	\$95.00	1,330.00
Bull	1 4	30.00	80.00 120.00	1 5	50.00	65.00 250.00
Calves	2	12.00	24.00		30.00	200.00
Total for dairy herd			1, 244. 00			1,645.00
Hogs:				}	}	1,010.00
Sows	- 1	85.00	35.00	3	45.00	135, 00
Pigs	7	28.00	196.00	22	6.00	132.00
Horses	4	105.00	420.00	4	95.00	380.00
Colts	1	60.00	60.00	2	ļ	110.00
Total value of stock			1,955.00			2, 402. 00
Machinery and tools:		l		i		-
Plows	2	8.00	16.00	2	7.00	14.00
Harrows	1	. 	12.00	2	12.00	24.00
(List all items of farm ma-						
chines, wagons, harness, and		(l	ĺ	
small tools).					İ	
Total amount invested in		i				
machinery and tools (not						
all listed here)			536. 20	ļ		545.68
Feeds, produce, and supplies:		l		1		
Cornbushels	225	. 85	191. 25	190	2,00	380.00
Corn stovertons	6	5.00	30.00	10	6.00	60.00
Hay, mixeddo	12	12.00	144.00	9	15.00	135.00
Hairy vetch seedpounds Potatoesbushels	20 106	. 22	4.40 84.80	60	3.00	180.00
Corn silagetons	100	5.00	50.00	15	6.00	90.00
Cementsacks		0.00		4	.80	3.20
Old lumber			12. 50			5.00
Total value of feeds, pro-	ł			i	İ	
duce, and supplies			516.95]		853. 20
Cash on hand and in bank	l		225. 50	1		25, 78
Value of bills due the farm			17.65			92.70
Total value of farm prop-				1		
erty	 		12,851.10	 		13, 519. 30
Amount of bills, notes, and mort-		1	· .	1		
gage the farm owes to others		ļ	3, 250. 00			3, 575. 25
Net worth (increase \$342.95	1			1		
for year)			9,601.10		 .	9,944.06



FIG. 1.—AN EXAMPLE OF THE PRIMITIVE FARM RECORD.

Measuring corn and keeping tally on the wagon box.



FIG. 2.—A FARMER WHO HAS KEPT COMPLETE COST ACCOUNTS FOR YEARS.

Such work takes much time and requires close attention to details.

The uses of the inventory are important and varied. As previously stated, it is the basis upon which is built the superstructure of accounting systems. Taken alone it will show a farmer exactly what he is worth and will be a guarantee of solvency and an aid in securing credits and loans from the bank in time of need. The inventories for two dates a year apart show whether progress or retrogression has occurred during the year, and definitely measure the degree of the change.

Taken in conjunction with a cash account for the year, the inventory shows how much has been made by farming and to what extent the personal and household expenses have offset profits. (See Table III.) It also gives a much better insight into the income produced by each farm department, as a decrease in inventory value of hogs, for instance, may offset to some extent what, from the cash account, looks like a very large income from that source, or vice versa.

TABLE III.—Showing how the inventory totals and cash account may be utilized to show the profit made by the farm.

	Values.		
Item.	Apr. 1, 1916.	Apr. 1. 1917.	
Farm inventories:			
Real estate	\$9,600.00	\$9,60 0.00	
Live stock	1,955.00	2, 402. 00	
Machinery and tools	536.00	545.6	
Feeds, produce, and supplies	516.95	853. 20	
Cash on hand and in bank	225.50	25. 78	
Bills due the farm	17.65	92.70	
Total value of the farm property	12, 851. 10	13, 519. 30	
Amount due by the farm to others	3, 250. 00	3, 575. 25	
Net worth each year	9,601.10	9, 944. 05	
increase in net worth		342.95	
From the cash account the amount of money paid out for other than farm expenses is found:			
Household expenses	838.38		
Personal expense	115. 25		
Interest on the mortgage, \$3,000 @ 5 %	150.00		
Purchase price of U.S. bond	50.00		
Total		653.60	
Supplies and rent furnished by the farm:	j		
Rental value of the farm home	129.00		
Value of supplies (fuel, milk, eggs, etc.)	150.50		
Total		270.50	
Total farm gain	.	1, 267. 0	

COST RECORDS.

The foregoing discussion has embraced simple record keeping. The accounts described deal almost exclusively with facts about the farm as a whole, as a unit, and serve to compare this year's business with that of last year or the year before. In order to keep accounts with the separate enterprises, however, to show the factors of cost and the returns of each, and what each one gains or loses, cost accounts are necessary.¹

Cost records, while of great use if correctly assembled and. intelligently interpreted, can only be obtained by the outlay of considerable time and attention to detail. (See Pl. XVII. fig. 2.) A man who works hard at manual labor all day can very rarely find the time and seldom has the inclination to set down daily all the minutiæ necessary to complete cost accounts. In cost records there are added to the inventory and cash account, labor records, feed records, supply records, crop yield and animal production records, which, when the amount of time necessary to summarize and distribute the indirect costs is considered, require much more attention than can ordinarily be given. Only where the conditions seem to assure that the accounts will be pushed through the year to a successful conclusion should cost accounting be begun. Detailed accounts begun and abandoned are worse than time and labor thrown away. They are apt to give the idea that there is no use in keeping any records whatever.

However, cost data systematically recorded, summarized, and studied year by year are of the utmost value to any farmer whose circumstances permit him to obtain them. The labor records will show just how much labor and team work is required by each crop on the farm and the time of the season in which it is required. They show what proportion of the labor is devoted to work that produces income and the very considerable amount that is consumed by "odd jobs" on every farm. The proportion that labor cost is of the total in the production of all farm crops and stock is brought out, and the number of days of man and horse labor necessary to produce an acre of any crop or to care for any animal for a year.

¹ Farmers' Bulletins No. 511, "Farm Bookkeeping," and No. 572, "A System of Farm Accounting," discuss the function of cost accounts, giving data useful to anyone interested.

A year's labor records show also just how much man power and horsepower is necessary to run the entire farm every week in the year and point out accurately just when the rush seasons occur and how much help is necessary to tide them over handily. With such records before him a farmer knows approximately how much labor and how many horses he will need to carry out his plan of operation for the coming year. He knows how much more or how much less labor he will need for every acre of increase or decrease in area of any crop and just when such labor will be required or may be spared. Increasing or decreasing the magnitude of the different farm enterprises and fitting them together until a complete year's work with an even load of labor for the entire season, with the rush points minimized, gives him personal control of unsettled labor conditions and puts him in an advantageous position to push through successfully the coming year's work.

Feed accounts, accurately recorded and summarized, will give valuable data on the amounts of grain and roughage required to put an animal on the market or to maintain the permanent herd. They give the quantities necessary to maintain the work stock, and thus enable the farmer to reserve sufficient for his needs and to sell his surplus feeds with safety. They enable the farmer to plan intelligently an increase or decrease in any of his herds and inform him just what these changes will entail in increased or decreased quantities of feeds required. They supplement the other records in that they indicate how to preserve the balance between crops and stock on the farm and thus become the basis upon which is determined the proportionate charge to stock and credit to crops for farm-produced feeds consumed.

Records of crop yields, animal products obtained, and of supplies used by the different farm enterprises are the additional factors necessary to make cost data complete. These are useful in that they show just what yields of crop and byproduct are obtained year by year, what and how much the animals produce, and by what farm departments miscellaneous supplies are used, thus permitting the making of adequate charges and credits.

USE OF COMPLETE COST ACCOUNTS.

When the cost records have been successfully carried through the year, all costs distributed, and the summarizing done, the cost of every crop and of each class of stock will be known, together with the income each has produced, and the resulting profit or loss for each, with the cost per acre, bushel, ton, or animal. (See Table IV.) These will prove of great interest and usefulness in numerous ways. The figures show the margin of profit and approximately what must be realized on each commodity produced in order to realize a profit or avoid a loss. Such figures for a series of years will be increasingly valuable.

Table IV.—Showing how cost accounts on an eastern North Carolina farm were utilized to show whether each farm department made a profit or a loss and how much.

Farm enterprise.	Income.	Cost.	Profit.	Loss.
Tobacco	\$1,039.25	\$388.83	\$650.42	
Corn for grain		3 55.01		\$209.76
Corn silage	837.50	362.44		24.94
Oats	65.00	90.54	l	25.54
Hay:	1	}	l .	l
Clover	90.00	43.03	46.97	
Cowpea	120.00	88.33	81.67	
Rye	30.00	47.40		17.40
Truck crops	170.02	122.12	47.90	
Dairy herd	2, 185. 24	2,604.17]	418.98
Hogs	227.50	145.30	82.20	
Poultry	198.05	76.54	116.51	
Sand pit	74.50	33.26	41.24	
Wood lot	858.00	265.82	92.18	
Outside labor	68.74	65.38	3.36	
Total	5, 104. 05	4, 688. 17	1, 112, 45 696, 57	696. 57
Net farm profit			415.88	

Where losses are sustained, the study of the facts for past years when profits were made may show why the losses occurred, and influence the farmer to take heart for the future and strive to overcome, if possible, the conditions that caused the losses. (See Table V.)

TABLE V.—Detail of the cost of growing polatoes on a western New York farm for a series of five years. A good illustration of the application of cost accounts in analyzing the cost of growing a crop.

	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	Five- year aver- age.
Acres grown	20.5	17. 2	20.7	19.3	16.7	18. 88
Per acre costa:						
Labor in growing—		, '				
Man	\$7.61	\$7.36	\$7.82	\$8.10	\$5.78	\$7.33
Horse	10.67	8.50	9.65	8.41	6. 76	8. 80
Labor in harvesting-						
Man	5.46	5. 29	4.36	4. 22	4.98	4.85
Horse	4.65	4.92	3. 74	8. 20	8. 17	3.94
Total labor cost-						
In growing	18.28	15.86	17.47	16.51	12.54	16. 13
In harvesting	10.11	10. 2 1	8. 10	7.42	8. 10	8. 7
Total	28.39	26.07	25. 57	23.98	20.64	24. 92
Materials used—						
Manure	2, 76	9. 13	9.00	1.23	8.59	6. 14
Seed	8.20	7.18	17.78	8.18	10.57	9.38
Fertiliser	8.18	18.10	9.14	10.82	10.04	10.18
Lime for spraying	.48	.41	.44	. 54	. 15	.40
Arsenate of lead	1.70	1.40	1.17	1.34	.1.26	1.3
Sulphate of copper	1.48	2.97	2. 53	8.45	2.43	2. 57
Total cost of materials	17. 75	34. 19	40.06	25.06	83.04	30.0
Indirect costs-						
Implement cost	4.39	7.10	8.37	6.50	8. 13	6.90
Interest and taxes	2.96	3.75	3. 57	5.43	5.40	4.2
Overhead expense	3.80	5. 23	6.59	4.87	5.70	5. 14
Total indirect cost	10.65	16.08	18.53	16.80	19. 23	16.2
Total, all costs	56.79	76.34	84.16	65. 79	72.91	71. 2
Por bushel costs—						
Labor to grow	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.06	0.0
Labor to harvest	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0. 0
Total labor cost	0.14	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.10	0.1
Materials	0.09	0.16	0.19	0.15	0.15	0.1
Indirect cost	0.05	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.09	0.0
Total cost per bushel	\$0.28	\$0.37	\$0.40	\$0.39	\$0.34	\$0.3
Yield per acrebushels	201	208	208	168	217	200.
Selling price per bushel	1	\$0.55	\$0.49	\$0.60	\$0.28	\$0,46
Seed per acrebushels		14.5	15.5	16.1	14.1	14.
Seed cost per bushel	1	\$0.49	\$1.15	\$ 0.51	\$ 0.75	\$0.6
Fertilizer per acrepounds		872	700	767	713	73
Cost per ton	\$25.32	\$30.02	\$26,10	\$26.98	\$28. 20	\$27.3

Table V.—Detail of the cost of growing potatoes on a western New York farm for a series of five years. A good illustration of the application of cost accounts in analyzing the cost of growing a crop—Continued.

	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	Five- year aver- age.
Acres grown	20. 5	17.2	20.7	19.3	16.7	18.88
	Per	Per	Per	Per	Рет	Per
Rates per hour:	асте.	асте.	асте.	acre.	acre.	acre.
Man labor	\$0.153	\$0.141	\$0.156	\$0.171	\$0.169	\$ 0.1 58
Horse labor	0.177	0.143	0.148	0.120	0.130	0. 1 44
Man hours per acre:						
To grow	49.74	52. 22	50.08	47.37	34. 22	46.73
To harvest	35.68	37.55	27.95	24.72	29. 16	31.01
Total	85. 42	89.77	78.03	72.09	63.38	77.74
Horse hours per acre:						
To grow	60.28	59.46	65 . 15	70.08	52.02	61.40
To harvest	26. 29	34.40	25. 27	26.63	24.87	27.36
Total	86.57	93.86	90.42	96.71	76.39	88.76

To obtain the greatest benefit from cost accounts, full data as to costs in quantities of labor, materials (as feed, seed, supplies, etc.), and the use of the farm equipment, should be recorded and carried along all through the process of summarizing. Hours of labor, pounds of grain, tons of fertilizer, etc., are equally as useful as the money figures, if not more so. Such data aid the farmer in getting a truer insight as to the facts and give him a firmer grip on his business affairs than can be obtained by money costs alone. Prices fluctuate, but the physical factors in the cost of production remain more or less constant; they constitute the best known source of information useful in the analysis of a farm business.

In making use of the results of a year's cost accounts for the purpose of perfecting the organization of the farm for the greatest profit, caution is doubly to be recommended. As previously stated, hasty conclusions should not be drawn. Sometimes a positive decrease in a year's profits may ensue if an enterprise be dropped because, taken alone, it has failed to pay. Cows, for instance, may not be showing a net profit, but if all the cows are sold, there may be no other profitable way of using up roughage which would thereby be wasted, resulting in a loss on the crop producing it. Labor devoted night and morning to milking and feeding cows, and charged to them, would be entirely wasted if the cows were sold and nothing else supplied to utilize it. Thus an added labor burden would have to be borne by the other enterprises. It is much better that these things be utilized than that they should be a dead loss, even though the cow account alone just breaks even, or worse. Any changes indicated, if made, should be brought about gradually and the effects noted in their relation to all other farm activities.

There is nothing like a set of records as a means of analyzing a farm business. To use such records, however, the fundamental principles must be understood and complied with; their limitations as well as their usefulness must be grasped. When this is done the accounts will become a strong staff and support.

HOUSEHOLD ACCOUNTS.

How many people know just what it costs them to live? Such information is extremely valuable, especially if the make-up of the cost is known, both as to money cost and the other factors. To the farmer such data should prove valuable indeed, especially in determining what part of his living comes from the farm.

If the accounts have been completely kept, the household expenses are easily assembled from the cash record, inventory and record of supplies used. Nothing in the realm of figures is more likely to astonish the average farm family than a summary of the household costs. The farm furnishes the family a house to live in, milk, butter, cream, eggs, pork, fowls, fuel, vegetables, and fruit, and often a great many other things. Yet the farmer often does not think of all these unless they are set before him. If he breaks even on the year he is likely to think there is no profit in the business when, in fact, he may have been living much better than the average city business man of like education, attainments, and capital.

All these things may have to be seen to be believed, but a well kept set of records, by adequate handling, can be made to show them.

¹ Farmer's Bulletin No. 635, "What the Farm Contributes Directly to the Farmer's Living," should prove of much value and interest to all farmers who keep household accounts,

PRODUCTION OF DRUG-PLANT CROPS IN THE UNITED STATES.

By W. W. STOCKBERGER,

Physiologist in Charge of Drug-Plant and Poisonous-Plant Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.

TEDICINAL plants have been cultivated in the United States for more than two centuries. Only a few decades have elapsed since healing herbs shared with small fruits and vegetables a place in every kitchen garden, and in certain localities their production and sale at one time formed the basis of small industries. In time, however, the numerous convenient preparations obtainable at every drug store rendered the domestic herb garden no longer necessary, and the great development of foreign commerce made it possible to obtain supplies of most crude drugs from sources where the cost of production was less than in this country. As a result, drug cultivation has never become an important branch of agriculture in the United States, and in recent years it has been confined chiefly to the production of relatively small crops of plants yielding volatile oils which are in demand for industrial purposes as well as for medicinal use.

DRUG CRISIS PRECIPITATED BY THE WAR.

The extent to which this country had become dependent upon foreign sources for its supply of crude drugs was not generally realized until 1914, when the war in Europe abruptly severed long-established trade connections and either greatly reduced or cut off entirely our supplies of many drugs. Prices rose to almost unheard-of figures, and the fear of a drug famine occasioned grave concern in business circles interested in maintaining the supply of medicinal products. The crude-drug situation soon became a popular subject for feature stories in numerous magazines and newspapers, and many people have been led to believe that the cultivation of medicinal plants offers unusual opportunities for large profits.

DRUG PLANTS CULTIVATED IN THE UNITED STATES.

Although the list of plants which yield useful drugs is large, the number at all suitable for cultivation in this country is relatively small. Many crude drugs are derived from plants which thrive only in the Tropics and therefore can not be successfully grown in the United States. Many other drugs are obtained from native trees and shrubs, and from wild herbs, some of which grow naturally on sandy or stony soil in the woodland shade, some in swamps and marshy places, while others occur as familiar weeds along roadsides, in meadows, and in open woods. When these wild plants are taken from their natural surroundings and placed under the conditions which exist in cultivated fields. they very frequently fail to make a satisfactory growth and often become the prev of insects or diseases from which they are practically free when in their native haunts. To domesticate these wild plants is by no means a simple task; it requires much time and patience, as well as unusual skill both in handling the plants and in supplying the conditions necessary for their favorable growth and development.

Many of the common medicinal plants are still grown in gardens in this country, either as decorative plants or for domestic use in cookery and as home remedies. For the most part, however, the consumption of salable products prepared from these plants is so small that their commercial cultivation would be impracticable, since their production in any considerable quantity would result in overstocking the market. A few medicinal plants, such as peppermint, spearmint, wormwood, wormseed, and tansy, are now grown commercially, chiefly as a source of volatile oils, but the relatively small acreage devoted to these crops is restricted to certain localities which have been found to be especially suitable for their production. Sage is a well-known marketgarden product, but there is a small acreage of this crop grown exclusively for the production of the dry-leaf sage, much in demand by sausage makers and spice grinders. (See Pl. XVIII, fig. 2.)

The growing of ginseng and goldenseal is a small but wellestablished industry in several States, but it is well recognized that each of these crops requires a heavy initial outlay and that five or more years must elapse after the germination of the seeds before any returns can be expected.

CANNABIS AND PEPPERS IN THE SOUTH.

Cannabis is now grown commercially as a side line by a few farmers in South Carolina and by occasional individuals in some other States. Two large drug manufacturers also grow sufficient cannabis for their own needs. Considerable technical skill is required to produce cannabis of a quality that will meet the standard requirements for this drug. Cannabis grown in some localities is deficient in the active principles upon which its value depends, and preliminary tests to determine the quality of the product are therefore always advisable before planting this crop on a commercial scale.

The commercial production of peppers for the drug and spice markets receives some attention in South Carolina, Louisiana, and some of the States of the Southwest. A market has been found for the small species used by pharmacists and for the larger species employed in manufacturing the ground red pepper, such as paprika, which is extensively used as a condiment. In Florence County, S. C., a pepper growers' association has been formed among the farmers growing this crop. The chief objects of this organization are to maintain a pure seed supply and to facilitate the marketing of the product. Through the cooperation thus secured it has been possible to overcome many of the marketing difficulties which were encountered when the crop from this locality was first introduced to the trade.

EXPERIMENTS WITH CAMPHOR.

The experiments with the camphor tree begun in Florida about 12 years ago by the Bureau of Plant Industry have led to the recent planting of this tree on an extensive scale for the commercial production of camphor gum. This tree has long been grown as an ornamental in various parts of the South, and in several localities in Florida there are small plantings, now well grown, which were made with a view to the production of camphor gum in marketable quantities. The experience thus far gained indicates that the cost of producing camphor gum from small plantings is prohibitive,

owing to the necessarily heavy overhead charges, and particularly the outlay required for the indispensable distilling plant. The smallest practicable commercial planting has been estimated at 500 acres, while it is believed that a plantation must cover several thousand acres in order to afford the best opportunity for reducing the cost of production to the minimum.

DIGITALIS.

Digitalis is one of the important drugs the normal supply of which has been seriously curtailed by the war in Europe. Attracted by the high market prices of these drugs, which include belladonna and henbane, many persons have recently attempted to cultivate them as a source of profit. The number of failures, however, has been relatively very large, either on account of inexperience or because of inability to provide the soil, climatic, and cultural conditions necessary for the successful growth of these plants.

Although very little digitalis is now cultivated as a drug crop, no serious market shortage need necessarily occur, since this plant, escaped from cultivation, grows wild over extensive areas in western Oregon and Washington, where, with proper encouragement, a supply sufficient to meet all domestic needs could be readily collected. For this reason it is doubtful whether present conditions warrant the growing of digitalis on land which might otherwise be devoted to the production of food crops.

BELLADONNA.

The continued high price of belladonna since the beginning of the present war has greatly stimulated interest in the production of this crop, but the acreage planted has been greatly restricted on account of inability to secure reliable seed at reasonable prices and because of the high cost of labor and the outlay required to provide the greenhouse facilities desirable for the successful propagation of thrifty plants. Information obtained from the best sources available indicates that approximately 100 acres of belladonna were harvested in this country in 1917. Although it is desirable that the acreage should be increased sufficiently to provide an adequate supply of this drug, it must be borne



FIG. 2.-FIELD OF SAGE.



FIG. 1.—FIELD OF BELLADONNA.

DRUG CROPS UNDER CULTIVATION ON A COMMERCIAL SCALE IN WISCONSIN.



FIG. 1.—BELLADONNA SEEDLINGS IN A GREENHOUSE READY FOR TRANS-PLANTING.

Belladonna is grown most readily from seeds sown in flats in the greenhouse in midwinter and transplanted to small pots in which they are handled like tomato plants, so that they may be ready for transplanting in the field as soon as danger of frost is over in the spring. Sowing belladonna seeds in the field or transplanting directly from the seed bed to the field has rarely given good results in this country.



FIG. 2.-DRUG GARDEN OF NATIVE WOODLAND HERBS.

Portion of garden on the grounds of a university. Here the conditions under which woodland herbs grow naturally have been duplicated as closely as possible.



mental, and in many localities in Oregon and Washington, where it has escaped from cultivation, it is now found growing as a weed in such abundance that supplies sufficient to replace the shortage due to cessation of imports could readily be This plant is not grown extensively for drug production in the United States, but it has been widely introduced as an orna-WILD GROWTH OF FOXGLOVE (DIGITALIS PURPUREA) ALONG A RAILWAY IN OREGON.



DRUG GARDEN FOR SCHOOL OF PHARMACY.

Drug gardens are now being maintained as a feature of the courses in pharmacy in a number of universities. This illustration shows a garden in which the cultures of medicinal plants furnish material of educational value for the pharmacy course and also serve as an ornamental addition to the grounds of the university.

in mind that all the belladonna needed can be grown on a very few acres. The quantity of belladonna annually consumed in the United States is not definitely known, but it has been estimated by men in the drug trade at approximately 300,000 pounds. Since the average yield per acre of dry belladonna leaves is about 600 pounds, it is evident that the area planted to this crop could not much exceed 500 acres without serious danger of overproduction. Indeed, any substantial increase in the present small acreage, by making more certain an available supply, will naturally tend to cause a material reduction in the market price.

HENBANE.

With very few exceptions, recent attempts to cultivate henbane as a drug crop in this country have resulted in failure. Although this plant is occasionally found growing wild in a number of the Northern States, it has not responded readily to cultivation on a field scale. When the seeds are sown in open ground germination is frequently uncertain, and often young plants grown under glass do not survive transplanting in the field. The leaves of henbane usually suffer severely from attacks of the potato beetle, and the crop is very likely to be destroyed if grown within the range of this insect. Since the difficulties connected with the cultivation of henbane are so great, this crop is not a desirable one for persons who can not well afford the loss which would be occasioned by a crop failure.

OTHER DRUG PLANTS.

A number of drug plants not mentioned here are grown in a small way in various localities in this country, chiefly to supply a local demand. However, since the demand for them is very limited or a wild supply fairly available, their cultivation on a more extensive scale does not offer much prospect of profit. (See Pls. XVIII to XXI.)

HAPHAZARD PRODUCTION UNDESIRABLE.

As a safeguard to the public health, laws have been enacted which require manufacturers of drugs and medicines to

¹ A detailed discussion of the cultivation of these plants is given in Farmers' Bulletin 663, entitled "Drug Plants under Cultivation," 1915.

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maintain certain standards of purity and quality in their products. Official standards of quality have also been adopted for the more important crude drugs in common use. It is quite evident, therefore, that securing a high standard of quality should be a primary consideration in the production of drugs under cultivation. There are, however, good reasons for believing that this end will not be attained through the production of a small quantity of drugs by each of a large number of persons unskilled in drug growing, since the product would be very irregular in appearance and quality, owing to wide variation in the methods used in collecting, curing, preserving, and packing the drugs for market. For the production of a dependable supply of cultivated crude drugs of high quality, reliance must be placed upon wellequipped growers who make the growing of drug plants a special industry and who have the necessary experience in special methods of plant culture, acquaintance with trade requirements, and knowledge of the influence of time of collection and manner of preparation on the constituents of the drug upon which its value depends. If developed along these lines, commercial drug growing in this country promises to become established upon a sound basis for the future, when normal conditions return.

PRIME IMPORTANCE OF MARKET.

The person who seriously considers growing drug plants for profit can scarcely give too much attention to the problem of finding a market for his product. Unless the grower lives near a city in which dealers in crude drugs are located, the disposal of a small crop will present many difficulties. If the crop is shipped to a distant dealer the deductions which will probably be made on account of transportation charges and defective quality may so reduce the returns that the transaction will show little, if any, profit. The grower who produces a quantity of crude drugs sufficient to justify the expense of having their quality determined by a reliable analyst, and who is well informed in respect to the condition of the wholesale market, will be in a position to judge the fairness of the prices offered for his crop by the dealers and to protect his interests in effecting a sale.

Since this country has entered into war, many persons have seriously considered growing drug plants, not for profit but for patriotic reasons. This commendable spirit has been especially evident in many of the women's organizations throughout the country. However, it is not regarded as advisable to encourage this form of activity, since the need for women's services is so much greater in the work of food production and conservation and in preparing the various articles so much needed for the aid and comfort of the men at the front. Moreover, unless closely supervised by some central authority, any extensive movement to grow drugs might easily result in the production of far larger quantities than are needed. This would involve a useless expenditure of effort which might accomplish much good if exerted in other ways.

DRUG GARDENS FOR SCHOOLS OF PHARMACY.

An important feature of the development of drug-plant culture in the United States has been the establishment of medicinal-plant gardens as an adjunct of the schools of pharmacy of a number of colleges and universities. Unfortunately, the purpose for which these gardens were established is frequently misunderstood. They were designed primarily not as sources of information regarding the commercial cultivation of drug plants, but to facilitate and enrich the courses of instruction in the characteristics and properties of medicinal plants. During the last three or four years these educational gardens have rapidly increased in number and now form a part of the regular teaching equipment of 18 different institutions.

Although these gardens are not devoted to commercial drug growing, nevertheless they can be made to contribute in a very practical way to the public welfare. They afford unusual opportunities for students of pharmacy to acquire a thorough knowledge of many medicinal plants and to be thereby better enabled to recognize inferiority or adulteration in crude drugs. These gardens also supply material useful in the investigation of many problems arising in the necessary revision of the United States Pharmacopæia and the National Formulary, the official standards for drugs

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under the national food and drugs act. Since the improvement of the quality of drugs and the perfecting of the standards by which a high quality of drugs and medicines may be maintained are both questions of national concern, the service which the institutional drug garden can render in attaining these ends is worthy of wider recognition.

Much pioneer work remains to be done in establishing correct methods for the cultivation of drug plants and in determining the localities where the conditions are most favorable for the production of each particular drug. The progress of this work will be greatly furthered by the educational drug gardens, since they are located in widely separated localities and offer unusual opportunities for obtaining data on the behavior of drug plants under very diverse conditions of soil and climate. The obtaining of such data is the necessary preliminary step toward any rational experiments in commercial drug growing.

PHOSPHATE ROCK OUR GREATEST FERTILIZER ASSET.

By WM. H. WAGGAMAN, Scientist in Fertilizer Investigations, Bureau of Soils.

THE development of the potential sources of fertilizer materials in the United States has been commanding special attention in recent years, and since the declaration of war against Germany this matter has assumed an importance greater than ever before.

A brief review of the progress made toward rendering this country independent of other nations for fertilizer supplies is interesting and, to say the least, very encouraging.

Only a few years ago it was generally believed, even by the best informed, that the Stassfurt deposits in Germany would be the world's most economic source of potash salts for an almost indefinite period. It now appears possible that when trade relations are restored between the warring nations this country may have firmly established a potash industry of its own.

The recovery of potash from partly desiccated lakes and from the giant kelps of the Pacific coast is now being profitably accomplished, and the saving of the potash volatilized in blast furnaces and in the burning of cement has been demonstrated as commercially feasible. The latter two sources if utilized to their fullest extent are alone amply sufficient to meet the annual demand of the fertilizer industry for potash salts.

Since combined nitrogen is not only one of the most important fertilizer ingredients but is essential also in the manufacture of military explosives, the war has done much toward stimulating effort in recovering and producing nitrogen compounds. The modern by-product coke oven is gradually replacing the old beehive type, and therefore ammonia is being recovered in ever increasing quantities from the coking of bituminous coal. Moreover, processes for the fixation

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of atmospheric nitrogen are being so perfected that it is only a question of time when an adequate supply of nitrogen compounds is assured our agricultural interests.

The third important fertilizer ingredient is phosphoric acid, which is the basis of nearly all mixed fertilizers, and is therefore applied to the soil in far greater quantities than either potash or nitrogen compounds.

It is very gratifying to know that this country possesses greater resources of phosphoric acid than any other nation. Not only have we supplied our own agricultural demands for this fertilizer ingredient, but for years we have been helping to maintain the crop-producing power of European countries by shipping them annually vast tonnages of phosphatic materials.

Though there are a number of commercial sources of phosphoric acid, such as basic slag, guano, bones, and other organic substances, by far the greater quantity used for fertilizer purposes is derived from phosphorite or amorphous phosphate of lime, of which there are enormous deposits in Florida, Tennessee, Utah, Idaho, Wyoming, and Montana and smaller deposits in South Carolina, Arkansas, Kentucky, and Virginia.

It is not possible to obtain strictly accurate figures on the available tonnage of phosphate rock in the United States, but the latest estimate of the United States Geological Survey places it at 5,712,082,000 tons. This estimate, however, is only for high-grade phosphate. Some years ago the writer, in cooperation with the phosphate operators, estimated that our reserve supply of all grades of phosphate rock, figured to the high-grade equivalent, was in the neighborhood of 10,500,000,000 tons, an amount which if properly conserved should meet our agricultural requirements for an almost indefinite period.

In 1913, before the European struggle began, the United States produced 3,068,604 tons of phosphate rock, which was nearly one-half of the entire world's output. During the past year (1916) the production was considerably curtailed, amounting to only 2,177,292 tons, but it is gratifying to know that a considerably greater tonnage (almost 100,000 tons) was utilized for domestic consumption than ever before in the history of the industry.

High-grade phosphorite, or phosphate rock, consists chiefly of tricalcium phosphate, commonly called bone phosphate of lime. The commercial grades range from 60 to 78 per cent of this compound and contain as impurities varying amounts of silica carbonates, fluorides, and oxides or phosphates of iron, and aluminum. The rock occurs at many different geologic horizons, ranging all the way from middle and late Tertiary in South Carolina and Florida to the Carboniferous age in the far Western States. Its mode of occurrence and physical properties also differ greatly in different localities. In Florida and South Carolina it is found in the form of bowlders, nodules, and pebbles imbedded in a matrix of sand and clay, the phosphate varying in color from white or cream color to an almost jet black, and in hardness from rock of flint-like character to soft, chalky material which can be readily crushed. In Arkansas, the Western States, and in certain parts of Tennessee phosphate occurs in definite strata interbedded with shales and phosphatic limestones. This bedded rock may be gray, blue, brown, or jet black. Some of it is dense and very hard and other types resemble fish roe in appearance, being made up of loosely cemented pebbles. This latter type is easily disintegrated. The Kentucky phosphate, as well as some of the highest grade brown rock in Tennessee, is found much disintegrated and mixed with impurities, which are ordinarily removed by a washing process.

Many theories have been offered to explain the manner in which phosphate deposits were formed and to what they owe their origin. Though these theories differ greatly in many respects, most of them agree, however, in two particulars, namely, that the deposits are of organic origin and have been laid down in, or concentrated through the agency of water.

METHODS OF MINING PHOSPHATE ROCK.

Because of the numerous modes of its occurrence, practically every known method is practiced in the mining of phosphate rock. In Florida and South Carolina phosphate occurs usually under an overburden of from a few inches to 30 feet or more of soil. This overburden is first removed either by steam shovels or by hydraulic methods, and the phos-

phate stratum thus exposed is taken out by hand or by mechanical or hydraulic means. The phosphate and matrix is then sent to the washer plant, where it is sprayed with water, and the clay, sand, and other impurities are disengaged by mechanical stirring devices and washed out through a flume. The rock is then screened, given a further rinsing, and is finally discharged into bins or piles, to be subsequently dried for shipment.

A good deal of phosphate was at one time dredged from the rivers both in Florida and South Carolina, but river mining has now practically ceased. Where the topography of the country is such that much phosphate occurs below tide level, however, dredges are frequently floated in the pits and mining operations profitably continued.

In the case of the bedded deposits of Arkansas, Tennessee, and the Western States, the rock is mined like coal, but much of this rock is so hard that blasting is often necessary. Where the strata lie close to the surface, mining may be done by open cut; but where the topography is rugged, tunneling is usually resorted to. This entails considerable expense in timbering, but the rock is obtained practically clean, needing no washing, and in dry climates requiring little or no artificial drying. Normally, the cost of mining phosphate rock and preparing it for the market varies all the way from \$1.75 to \$2.50 per ton, depending on the nature and richness of the deposit.

MATERIAL LOST OR WASTED IN MINING OPERATIONS.

Unfortunately all the methods of mining phosphate rock as conducted at present entail great losses of phosphoric acid. Where the phosphate rock occurs imbedded in a matrix the source of loss is in the finely divided material passing through the screens of the washer plant, no differentiation being made between the small particles of phosphate and the sand and clay. It is estimated that two-thirds of the phosphoric acid actually present in the mined portion of the Florida deposits has been thus lost or thrown upon the dump heaps. Considering that an average of more than 2,000,000 tons of phosphate rock has been marketed annually from this State for the past decade, the loss runs into rather appalling figures.

In the case of the western phosphate deposits the situation is as yet not serious, since these deposits have been exploited to no great extent. A number of phosphate strata occur in the western fields, but in mining operations only the highest grade phosphate is saved, the overlying and underlying strata, which contain considerable percentages of phosphoric acid, being left or thrown aside. In underground operations, after the removal of the high-grade material, many of the tunnels are allowed to cave, and the lower grade material is thus irretrievably lost.

Although our tonnage of phosphate exceeds that of any other nation, and there is sufficient high-grade rock in sight to meet any increased demand which is likely to occur for many years, the losses entailed in mining and preparing rock for the market must be regarded as serious, and a good deal of earnest effort has been spent in trying to work out methods of eliminating these losses.

METHODS OF MANUFACTURING SOLUBLE AND AVAILABLE PHOSPHATES.

The main reason why such immense quantities of lowgrade phosphate material are thrown aside or wasted is that the manufacturing process universally employed in producing soluble and available phosphoric acid requires a very high-grade phosphate rock.

Of the 2,000,000 tons and more of phosphate rock produced in the United States in 1916, all but 70,000 were converted into acid phosphate, a product manufactured by mixing phosphate rock with an equal weight (approximately) of 60 per cent sulphuric acid. When properly made acid phosphate is a dry, powdery substance containing from 14 to 18 per cent of soluble phosphoric acid, and is used as the basis of nearly all commercial fertilizers.

Since the presence of iron and aluminum renders superphosphate less soluble and causes the product to be sticky, the fertilizer manufacturers will accept only phosphate rock that contains low percentages of these elements. Many deposits, therefore, that are really high in phosphoric acid are unsuitable for the manufacture of acid phosphate because of the presence of these impurities in prohibitive amounts.

At least 200 patents have been issued in the United States on processes for producing soluble and available phosphates without the use of sulphuric acid. Many of these methods have interesting features, but none of them has yet proved commercially practicable for the manufacture of fertilizer.

There are two general processes, however, which give promise of becoming commercially important. The first of these is based on the production of phosphate compounds which undergo ready decomposition under soil conditions. In this class is the phosphate of basic slag, a substance which is now universally recognized as a highly desirable phosphatic fertilizer.

Among our many industrial wastes the slag of blast furnaces and smelters is one of the most striking. When these furnaces are tapped the slag is discharged in a molten condition at a temperature of from 1,600° to 1,800° C., and it seems most unfortunate that the tremendous number of heat units present in such a molten mass is not utilized.

The iron ores used in European countries are high in phosphorus, and therefore the slag produced from the smelting of such ores is highly phosphatic. In this country, however, all the iron ore, with the exception of some occurring in Alabama, contains almost no phosphorus, and the slag produced has had little or no value except for filling purposes and railroad ballast.

One company in Alabama using an iron ore high in phosphorus produces a basic phosphatic slag for which it finds a ready market. It would seem to be a rather simple matter for other concerns to mix finely divided phosphate rock or phosphatic limestone with the molten slag as it issues from the furnace, and thus produce a phosphatic fertilizer in which the phosphoric acid is readily available to crops.

The other method of producing phosphoric acid, which is attracting considerable attention at present, is based on the volatilization of this acid from its compounds and its subsequent collection. Though the procedures advocated by different investigators vary in detail, the general scheme consists in submitting an intimate mixture of phosphate rock and sand with or without coke to the action of a temperature sufficiently high to drive off the phosphoric acid and produce a slag consisting chiefly of silicate of lime.

This slag finally contains most of the impurities originally present in the phosphate rock. The nearly pure phosphoric acid volatilized by this method is either absorbed in water or treated in an electric precipitator. The acid can then be used either for treating a second batch of phosphate rock and producing thereby double acid phosphate, or it may be neutralized with ammonia, forming ammonium phosphate, one of the most concentrated fertilizers it is possible to produce.

It still appears doubtful, however, if the electric furnace will be widely employed to produce a commodity as cheap as phosphate fertilizer should be, but it is very probable that the substitution of some type of fuel-fed furnace will bring down the cost of producing phosphoric acid by volatilization very materially. The process, on the whole, appears particularly attractive from a conservation standpoint, since it renders possible the utilization of lower grades of phosphate unsuitable for treatment with sulphuric acid. Moreover, the product obtained is phosphoric acid in such a concentrated form that long railroad hauls would be commercially practicable, where they are economically impossible with superphosphate containing relatively low percentages of phosphoric acid.

In these stirring times efficiency is everywhere the watchword, but efficiency as applied to industrial processes should mean not only a maximum production at a minimum cost but the conservation of materials which will assure an adequate supply to future generations.

DANGER OF INTRODUCING FRUIT FLIES INTO THE UNITED STATES.

By E. A. BACK,

Entomologist in Charge of Stored Product Insect Investigations, Bureau of Entomology.

THE American farmer has had laid upon him a neverending burden in the losses he sustains from the ravages of injurious insects. The sad part of it is that more than 50 per cent of all his insect troubles might have been avoided had public opinion and a knowledge of insects throughout the world been sufficiently advanced during the early days of the Republic to have made possible the splendid quarantine system that the United States Department of Agriculture, through its Federal Horticultural Board, has been perfecting since the passage of the Federal plant quarantine act of 1912.

It seems strange, in the light of present-day knowledge, that the department should have had any difficulty in securing the passage of a law to protect the American farmer. Twenty year's ago, in an article published in the Yearbook for 1897, Dr. L. O. Howard, Chief of the Bureau of Entomology, began the campaign against the careless and unintentional introduction of pests from other countries through the ordinary trade channels. The need, then expressed, for National legislation establishing quarantines against foreign insects has been demonstrated only too well by the new and injurious pests that have since become established in America. Fortunately the campaign to protect the United States from insect-infested and diseased fruits and plants has led at last to the passage of such a law as the Federal plant quarantine act of 1912, to which reference has just been made. But it has taken much painful and expensive experience to educate public opinion to the point where such legislation was made possible. Apple growers have had to fight the codling moth and the San Jose scale; wheat growers, the Hessian fly. New Englanders have had to see

their forests devastated by the gipsy moth and to suffer from the poisonous rash of the brown-tail moth. The western farmer has had to see his alfalfa fields devoured by the alfalfa leaf weevil; the orange and grapefruit growers of Florida have had to suffer from the devastating spread of the white flies through their groves; cotton growers have had to lose millions of bales of cotton to feed the cotton boll weevil; the Californian, years ago, had to see his citrus trees almost ruined by the cottony cushion scale; and more recently householders and others in large portions of the South have had to see their premises overrun by that diminutive scourge, the Argentine ant. What farmer of the South does not know of the tremendous losses caused by certain grain "weevils"? What railroad president or farmer of the eastern portion of the United States has not seen his chestnut forests dying within the past few years from the chestnut blight? Yet all these pests and many more have come to our shores from other countries through the usual channels of international trade. They can never be eradicated. They will tax forever the agriculture of our country.

However, "it is useless now," to quote from Mr. C. L. Marlatt, chairman of the Federal Horticultural Board, "to dwell on what could have been saved to the agriculture and natural-forest resources of this continent if our forefathers had been wise enough to have early established and intelligently enforced inspection and quarantine regulations against the Old World to exclude plant diseases and insect enemies. That would have been conservation in its most practical form. The past can not be remedied, but the future can be safeguarded, and that is the present opportunity." It is in this safeguarding of the future that the department is rendering, and will continue to render, a service to the country that can never be fully appreciated.

To fight insects and plant diseases by keeping them from gaining a foothold in our country is the aim of the Federal Horticultural Board. To do this an effective quarantine system is in operation at all ports of entry, and a careful survey is being made of pests in other lands likely to be introduced into our own, in order that the department may the better guard against them. This study has brought to light many pests that, as a result of the advance in agriculture in the more sparsely settled regions of the world, were not even known to exist when first was begun the campaign against foreign pests. Among the insects of other lands that have not yet become established in our own are the serious pests known popularly as fruit flies.

WHAT ARE FRUIT FLIES?

Fruit flies are insects that resemble ordinary house flies but are far more beautiful, inasmuch as their wings are prettily spotted and banded and their bodies are usually more brightly colored. They are like house flies, also, in that they lay small white eggs that hatch into whitish maggots. These maggots, or larvæ, when full grown, are from three-sixteenths to half an inch in length. They do not, however, develop in refuse or decaying matter as do those of the house fly, but feed upon the living tissues of fruits, nuts, and vegetables. The eggs, which the female fruit fly lays just beneath the skin of the host plant or fruit, hatch into the maggots just mentioned, and these burrow in all directions through the pulp of the host. As the maggots, or larvæ, tunnel their way about the pulp of their host, they cause decays to develop, and these rotting areas often produce greater injury than the maggots themselves.

The attention of the reader is directed to the illustrations (Pls. XXII to XXVII) for a more striking explanation than words can give of the injury fruit flies are capable of inflicting upon the food of man.

NATIVE SPECIES OF FRUIT FLIES.

At least five species of fruit flies are native to the United States. The best known is the "railroad worm," or "apple maggot," so common in sections of the Eastern States. This is the pest that forms the winding brown streaks and decays often found in such early apples as the Red Astrachan, Golden Sweet, and Early Harvest varieties. Then there are two species that cause wormy cherries and two that attack gooseberries and currants.

¹ Rhagoletis pomonella Walsh.

² R. cingulata Loew and R. fausta Osten-Sacken.

^{*} R. ribicola Doane and Epochra canadensis Loew.

FOREIGN SPECIES LIKELY TO BE INTRODUCED.

The native species of fruit flies just mentioned are confined to the northern half of our continent and are capable of withstanding our coldest winters. On the other hand, the fruit flies of foreign countries, which are most to be feared, are lovers of a warmer climate. Therefore, should they succeed in evading our quarantine officials and become established in our country, they will be most serious as pests of the Pacific slope, of our Southern States, and of our island possessions. Investigations now in progress indicate that there are at least 20 fruit flies that might seriously affect our food supply, in the form of fruits and vegetables, should they become established in our country. The more important of these are discussed below.

THE MEDITERRANEAN FRUIT FLY.

The Mediterranean fruit fly is the most serious and widespread of all fruit-fly pests at the present time. During the past 100 years that it has been known to science it has been spreading to different countries until now it is causing havoc on all continents except that of North America. It first attracted attention in London as an injurious pest of oranges imported from the Azores. It was recorded as a pest in Spain in 1842, in Algeria in 1858, in Italy in 1863, in Sicily in 1878, in Tunis in 1885, and in South Africa in 1889. It spread to western Australia in 1897 and to eastern Australia in 1898. In 1899 it was found in Tasmania; in 1900 in peach orchards near Paris, France; in 1901 in New Zealand and Brazil. In 1904 it was found a pest in Egypt and in Asia Minor, and in 1905 in Argentina. Between 1909 and 1914 it was discovered in both the eastern and western portions of Africa. In 1910 it was first discovered in the Hawaiian Islands, and within two years it had spread to every important island of the group. During 1916 the orange, tangerine, peach, pear, and apple crops of the Patras consular district of Greece were badly damaged. Bermuda became infested in 1865. Can it be kept out of the United States?

The Mediterranean fruit fly is particularly injurious because it attacks many different kinds of fruits, nuts, and

¹ Ceratitis capitata Wiedemann.

vegetables. In the Hawaiian Islands, where it has been investigated thoroughly by the department, it attacks 72 kinds of fruits. A complete list of fruits and vegetables attacked will be furnished by the department to those who desire it. It may be said, however, that almost any fruit in the Hawaiian Islands may harbor larvæ of this fruit fly. A partial list of host fruits includes oranges, grapefruit, lemons, limes, kumquats, tangerines, peaches, apples, figs, apricots, bananas, mangoes, avocadoes, sapotas, loquats, persimmons, guavas, quinces, papayas or papaws, pears, plums, grapes, bell peppers, eggplant, tomatoes, and even cotton bolls and coffee cherries. Plates XXII to XXIV illustrate the work of this fruit fly.

OLIVE FRUIT FLY.

The olive fruit fly is at present a pest in all the regions bordering upon the Mediterranean, throughout the northern, eastern, and southern parts of Africa, and in western Asia. It attacks only the fruit of the olive and closely related species. It frequently causes untold damage to the olive crops of Italy, Spain, and Africa. During October and November, 1916, the writer observed the destruction wrought by this pest in oil or manzanillo olives throughout the Barcelona-Tarragona and the Granada districts of Spain. Scarcely a ripening fruit could be found that was not badly infested. The beautiful eating olives, known in this country as "queen" olives, grown in the vicinity of Seville, Spain. are often infested. The illustrations of Plate XXV indicate the severe injury that the olive fly can inflict. The fruits illustrated were picked from the trees in Spain. The olive orchards of California are not yet infested with the olive fruit fly. Is it not worth while attempting to keep this pest out of the olive orchards of California?

MELON FLY.

The melon fly is a pest par excellence of vegetables, particularly of cucumbers, squashes, pumpkins, tomatoes, string beans, cowpeas, watermelons, cantaloupes, chayote, and other vegetable marrows belonging to the cucumber family. The melon fly was not known to science until 1898, when it was discovered in the Hawaiian Islands, to which it had

¹ Dacus olcae Rossi, ² Bactrocera cucurbitae Coquillett.

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spread from either China or Japan. At present it is known to exist not only in Hawaii, China, and Japan, but also in the Philippine Islands, Java, Tunis, northern Australia, Ceylon, and India. Its native home is, beyond doubt, the Indo-Malayan region.

During the period of somewhat over 20 years that it has been present in Hawaii it has spread to all the islands of the group and has put a stop to the free cultivation of the vegetables listed above. Watermelons and cantaloupes, particularly, can not be grown unless the fruits are protected by covering as soon as the blossoms open. Plate XXVI, figure 1, shows the method used in the Hawaiian Islands for protecting Chinese cucumbers from infestation, by inclosing each fruit in a long paper envelope. Often the vines are killed back by the maggots, and even the watermelon seedlings may be ruined by the maggots developing in the taproot. During the summer months in Hawaii it is impossible to grow tomatoes, pumpkins, or squashes. The vines may produce a rank, luxuriant growth and bloom profusely, but the melon fly lays its eggs in the undeveloped ovary of the bloom, or in the young fruit, and the maggots hatching prevent the fruit from maturing. Examples of the work of the melon fly are shown in Plate XXVI, figure 2, and in Plate XXVII. As many as 650 maggets have been reared from a pumpkin no more than 4 inches long. Can this pest be kept out of the cantaloupe and truck gardens of southern California, from the rich tomato plantations of Florida, and from other points of our Southland?

MEXICAN FRUIT FLY.

The Mexican fruit fly, often referred to as the Mexican orange maggot, is known to occur only in Mexico. It attacks oranges, grapefruit, limes, peaches, guavas, and plums. It doubtless will be found attacking many other fruits when once it has been studied thoroughly. Although wormy oranges from Mexico have been condemned in our Middle Western States and at California points, this pest has not yet become established in the orange groves of California, Florida, or Louisiana, thanks largely to the quarantine measures adopted by the United States Department of Agricul-

¹ Anastrepha ludens Loew,

ture, California, Florida, and Arizona, and to cultural and climatic checks.

PAPAYA FRUIT FLY.

The papaya or papaw fruit fly is a pest of the papaya, a fruit which, in tropical and semitropical countries, is either already or fast becoming a valuable breakfast fruit. The papaya fruit fly is a native of the West Indian region, and is known to be injurious in Porto Rico, the Bahama Islands, Santo Domingo, Haiti, Cuba, and Central American points. It has already spread to the southeastern part of Florida, about Miami. This pest should not be permitted to spread to the valuable papaya gardens of Hawaii and the Philippines.

WEST INDIAN FRUIT FLY.

The West Indian fruit fly 2 occurs throughout the West Indies, Mexico, Central America, and South America. It is a pest of prime importance, attacking many fruits. It has been reported infesting the peach, mango, orange, pear, plum, persimmon, guava, coffee cherries, and a number of other tropical and semitropical fruits. It and several other closely related species found in the same general region could easily become serious pests in Florida and the Gulf Coast States should they once become established there.

BANANA FRUIT FLY.

The banana fruit fly a was first described in 1909 as a pest of bananas in Fiji. It appears not yet to have become established in Australia, although it has been intercepted at Sydney in shipments of bananas from Suva. The banana fruit fly would become a serious menace to the banana export trade of the Hawaiian Islands and of Central America and South America should it spread to these food centers.

PINEAPPLE FRUIT FLY.

The pineapple fruit fly was not known until 1903, when it was discovered in a shipment of pineapples imported from Rarotonga. At a later time pineapples from Suva were dis-

¹ Toxotrypana curvicauda Gerstaecker. ² Bactrocera curvipennis Froggatt. ³ Ansstrepha frateroulus Wiedemann. ⁴ Bactrocera canthodes Broun.

covered infested. Besides pineapples, it has been found infesting oranges, granadillas, and mammee-apples (papaias) from Tonga and Rarotonga. Quarantine officials of the department are constantly guarding the fertile pineapple fields of Hawaii, which are exposed owing to the Australasian trade with Honolulu.

QUEENSLAND FRUIT FLY.

The Queensland fruit fly is a serious pest of the banana, mango, peach, apricot, nectarine, orange, apple, quince, loquat, and a number of wild fruits. It is known to occur in Australia (Queensland and New South Wales), India, Ceylon, Java, and Amboina. This fruit fly threatens the Hawaiian Islands, where it would affect the pineapple and the banana, the only two fruits that are of commercial importance now that the Mediterranean fruit fly and the melon fly have been introduced and have attacked other Hawaiian fruits and vegetables with such disastrous results.

OTHER FRUIT FLIES MAY DEVELOP INTO PESTS.

In calling attention to the above-mentioned fruit flies as those most likely to be introduced, it should be borne in mind that at present very little is known regarding the capacity for injury possessed by a large number of other closely related species. The department has investigated those that are nearest and most likely to be introduced, but there exist throughout the semi-Tropics of both the Old and New Worlds other fruit flies that appear just now to be of little economic importance. This, however, may be merely because they are living at present in countries not yet developed agriculturally and are forced to subsist upon the scattered and small native fruits or are held in check by natural agencies.

Thus the Mediterranean fruit fly is so rare to-day in western Africa—its native home—where cultivated fruits are but little grown that no one would think of listing it as a dangerous pest. Yet, once it had spread to old settled countries, it proved to be a ruinous pest of practically all cultivated fruits. In South Africa the Natal fruit fly,² which was not

¹ Bactrocera tryoni Froggatt. ² Ceratitie rubivora Coquillett.



FIG. 1.—THREE ADULTS OF THE MEDITERRANEAN FRUIT FLY LAYING EGGS IN THE RIND OF AN ORANGE.



FIG. 2.—A GRAPEFRUIT SECTIONED TO SHOW THE HAVOC CAUSED BY MAGGOTS OF THE MEDITERRANEAN FRUIT FLYWIZED by

WORK OF THE MEDITERRANEAN FRUIT FLY.

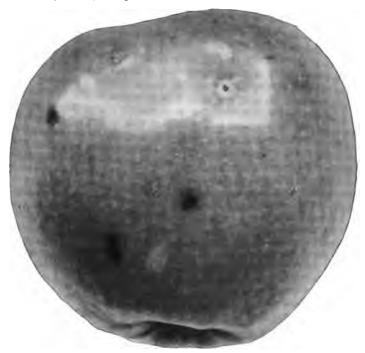


FIG. 1.—APPLE PUNCTURED BY MEDITERRANEAN FRUIT FLY ADULTS.

Whenever growing apples are punctured by the fruit fly the skin about the puncture becomes discolored. The apple illustrated was found at Granada, Spain.



FIG. 2.—JAPANESE PLUMS SHOWING MANY PUNCTURES IN THE SKIN.

Females of the Mediterranean fruit fly have laid eggs. Note that about each puncture the flesh has withered, causing a distinct depression very characteristic of fruits such as the plum that are attacked as they reach maturity.



FIG. 1.—THE QUINCE IS A FAVORITE HOST OF THE MEDITERRANEAN FRUIT FLY.

Every fruit offered for sale in Cadiz, Spain, in 1916, was affected. So firm is the flesh that badly infested fruits show no external discolorations. Often the only external evidences of infestation are such holes as are shown in this fruit, through which the maggets have escaped after tunneling to the surface.



FIG. 2.—MEDITERRANEAN FRUIT FLY MAGGOTS IN A JAPANESE PERSIMMON.

The persimmon, very much overripe, has been broken open to show the maggots. In such watery fruits the maggots feed nearer the skin. The persimmons in the markets of Barcelona, Valencia, and Cadiz, Spain, were infested during 1916.



FIG. 1.—MANZANILLO OLIVES, NATURAL SIZE, INFESTED BY THE OLIVE FRUIT FLY.

Note depressions resulting from feeding of maggots in pulp and breaks in skin through which insect has left fruit. Practically every olive examined on trees in Barcelona, Tarragona, and Granada, Spain, was thus infested during October and November, 1916.

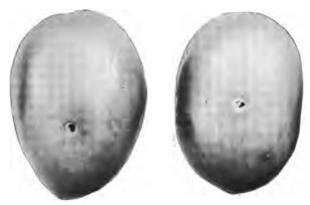


FIG. 2.—QUEEN OLIVES, SLIGHTLY ENLARGED, SHOWING HOLES IN SKIN MADE BY MAGGOT OR ADULT OF OLIVE FRUIT FLY.

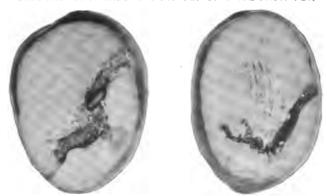


FIG. 3.—QUEEN OLIVES, SAME AS IN FIGURE 2, CUT OPEN.

The injury to the pulp caused by maggots of the olive fruit fly is very apparent. Such infested fruits are rejected from the best trade and are sold as inferior fruits, for salad purposes. Olives of figures 2 and 3 were grown near Seville, Spain.

WORK OF THE OLIVE FRUIT FLY.



FIG. 1.—PROTECTING CHINESE CUCUMBERS FROM MELON FLY ATTACK.

The melon fly is so persistent in its attack upon cucumber and other fruits that the Chinese gardeners find it necessary in Hawaii to inclose all the growing fruits in envelopes made from newspapers. Otherwise the entire crop is ruined.



FIG. 2.—DESTRUCTIVE WORK OF MELON FLY LARVÆ IN TOMATO.

Living maggots quickly burrow out of sight. The maggots shown in the illustration have been killed that the reader may compare their size with that of a medium-size tomato.

THE MELON FLY.



FIG. 1.—A WATERMELON SHOWING DEFORMITIES CAUSED BY MELON FLY ATTACK.

When the fruits are punctured, the growth is arrested about the injured spot and various and curious deformities may result.

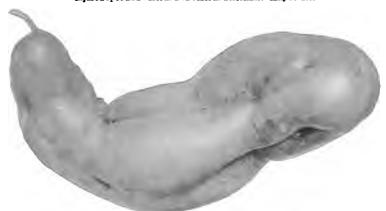


FIG. 2.—A CUCUMBER DECAYED AND OTHERWISE INJURED BY MELON FLY ATTACK.

It is almost impossible to grow cucumbers free from melon fly attack in Hawaii, although the cucumber is the most resistant to attack of all cucurbitaceous crops.

WORK OF THE MELON FLY.

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FIG. 1.—HAND BAGGAGE OF TRAVELERS ARRIVING AT SAN FRANCISCO FROM HAWAII BEING INSPECTED FOR FRUITS AND VEGETABLES INFESTED BY FRUIT FLIES.



FIG. 2.—TRUNKS AND OTHER HEAVY BAGGAGE OF TRAVELERS ARRIVING AT PACIFIC PORTS FROM HAWAII BEING EXAMINED BY FRUIT-FLY INSPECTORS.

These inspectors intercept contraband fruits on an average about once a month.
(Photographs by Maskew.)



FIG. 1.—CHINAMEN REMOVING ALL SPLIT, DECAYED, OR RIPE FRUITS FROM BUNCHES OF BANANAS IN A BANANA PACKING SHED NEAR HONOLULU.

Each bunch is cleaned with great care.



FIG. 2.—BANANAS AWAITING INSPECTION BEFORE SHIPMENT.

As overripe and damaged bananas may carry the fruit fly, each bunch, after it has been cleaned, is set aside to await inspection by the Federal inspector before it is wrapped in rice straw and shipped to California.



FIG. 3.—INSPECTOR EXAMINING BUNCHES OF BANANAS WRAPPED IN RICE STRAW ON SAN FRANCISCO DOCKS.

Each bunch bears a certificate stating that it was found free from infestation before being wrapped in Hawaii. (Photograph by Maskew.)

described as new to science until 1901, was originally an insignificant insect attacking the fruits of native trees in Natal. But with the development of South Africa, which resulted in the cultivation on a commercial scale of an increasing number of our ordinary fruit crops, it has itself kept pace with fruit production, until now it is rated one of the most important pests infesting both native and cultivated fruits.

It is hazardous, therefore, to ignore even those fruit flies that are at present of little apparent importance as pests, inasmuch as any one of them, once introduced to a more favorable country, may develop into a pest of prime importance, just as the cotton boll weevil, at first an obscure pest of wild plants closely related to the cotton plant in Mexico, discovered its preference for the cultivated cotton and at once developed into one of the most disastrous pests of our Southland.

DANGER OF INTRODUCTION INCREASES EACH YEAR.

The danger is real that fruit flies of other lands may become established in our own unless active measures are taken to keep them out. Trade is extending to remote corners of the earth. The Tropics are becoming more important each year. Besides giving up their wealth, the Tropics will give up their pests, just as Europe and Asia in the free days of the past sent to our shores more than 50 per cent of our poverty-producing pests along with their enriching cargoes. Fast steamships and cold storage make it possible now for fresh fruits grown in such countries as Australia and South Africa to be placed on the markets of London, New York, San Francisco, and Buenos Aires, and these fresh fruits may carry the maggets of fruit flies. The warmer portions of our country are becoming more thickly settled, and with the increase in population come a larger number of vegetable gardens and fruit orchards, thus making host conditions more favorable for the establishment of fruit flies, as well as of other pests. There is no doubt that conditions are becoming more favorable in our country, as well as throughout the Tropics and semi-Tropics of the New World, for the increase of fruit-fly ravages.

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INSTANCES OF FRUIT-FLY SPREAD.

Numerous instances of fruit-fly spread can be shown. The Bermudas would not now be infested by the Mediterranean fruit fly, in all probability, had not a sailing vessel, bound for New York from the Mediterranean region during Civil War times, been blown from her course and forced to unload her cargo containing infested fruits at St. George. The Mediterranean fruit fly did not become established in Australia until steamships and cold storage made it possible for the infested Mediterranean countries to ship oranges to Perth and Sydney. With the pest established in eastern Australia, the ships plying between Australia and Hawaii carried the maggots to Honolulu, and to-day the agents of California and the department are intercepting infested fruits on ships arriving at San Francisco and San Pedro from Honolulu and Hilo.

A fruit-fly chrysalis, or pupa, was discovered in New Zealand in soil about the roots of a plant imported from Australia, and in Tasmania infested fruits from Sydney are frequently condemned. In 1909 a case of infested peaches with living larvæ of the Mediterranean fruit fly arrived at Auckland, New Zealand, after a four weeks' voyage in cold storage from South Africa. At San Francisco inspectors of the Federal Horticultural Board are almost monthly intercepting infested fruits in the ships' stores and even in the baggage and pockets of tourists returning from the Hawaiian Islands.

At Washington the Federal Horticultural Board has found a living papaya fruit fly in an express package from Mexico and living specimens of the olive fruit fly in a package of olive seed sent by mail from South Africa and destined for California, where the olive fly does not yet occur. The writer has seen cargoes of oranges, some fruits of which were infested, being loaded on ships at Spanish ports and consigned to London and South America. The writer and others have had the misfortune to purchase oranges containing maggots of the Mexican fruit fly on the trains between Mexico City and the Texas border. Fruitfly attack is usually so obscure at first that the traveling public often purchase what appear to be sound fruits, only

later to discover them maggoty within and to throw them away, sometimes long distances from the place of purchase. This method of spread has been common in Hawaii, Australia, and Africa.

WHAT THE DEPARTMENT IS DOING.

In the foregoing lines the reader will have learned something of what the department, through its Federal Horticultural Board, is doing toward intercepting and destroying fruit flies, as well as other pests, and preventing them from becoming established in this country. By means of quarantines and regulations the department is prohibiting the entry of all horticultural products likely to carry pests unless they have been rendered free from danger as pest carriers, either by Federal inspection or by treatment by approved methods under Federal supervision. The reports of the officers of the Federal Horticultural Board are replete with instances of injurious pests intercepted from all quarters of the globe. The latest, perhaps, is the confiscation at San Francisco of an infested grapefruit or granadilla from Java found in the baggage of a tourist.

While the inspectors are on the watch for the contraband material at ports of entry, the department carries its protection further. In the Hawaiian Islands, where the Mediterranean fruit fly and the melon fly are serious pests, it has been found that the banana and the fresh pineapple trade may be saved to the people provided certain precautions are taken. The department therefore has established in Hawaii a system of inspection that is heartily supported by the fruit growers and transporting companies concerned, whereby all plantations and packing houses from which fruit is shipped are kept from becoming sources of fruit-fly dissemination. The regulations of the department still further protect the mainland by rulings, as a result of which no shipments of fruit can be made from Hawaii to the Pacific coast or unloaded there unless they have first received the approval of the Federal Horticultural Board. Certain phases of the inspection service carried on to protect the mainland United States are illustrated by the figures of Plates XXVIII and XXIX. Aside, also, from the quarantine and inspection phases of the work of the department, the Federal Horticul-

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tural Board maintains a fruit-fly specialist whose duty it is to gather available information regarding fruit-fly pests, either by actual travel in foreign lands or by correspondence with specialists serving foreign Governments.

THE TRAVELING PUBLIC MUST AID.

After Federal and State officials have done all within their power to prevent fruit-fly pests from entering the United States through our ports of entry, much depends upon the intelligence and personal interest of the traveling public in supplementing their work. At present printed matter is distributed to all persons entering Pacific ports from the Hawaiian Islands. This calls attention to the serious consequences that may follow the careless and unintentional introduction of fruit flies from Hawaii. In addition each passenger must sign an affidavit stating that he has in his baggage no fruit subject to fruit-fly attack. This educational campaign, already in progress, has done much to reduce the number of instances of fruit stowed away in inaccessible places in personal baggage. Such fruits have no value except as curiosities to be shown friends at home. Travelers have been known to carry infested coffee cherries, kamani nuts, and other small inedible fruits in their pockets, where naturally such small fruits are easily overlooked by inspectors. If fruit flies are to be excluded permanently from our rich fruit and vegetable regions, inspectors must have the hearty and intelligent cooperation of each traveler.

CONCLUSION.

Persons who have traveled in countries where fruit flies are a scourge to the horticulturist and truck gardener realize fully the importance of the fight on the part of the United States Department of Agriculture to keep these pests from becoming established in our country. It is the putting into practice in the best possible manner of the old adage, "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure."

THE GREAT PLAINS WATERFOWL BREEDING GROUNDS AND THEIR PROTECTION.

By Harry C. Orenholser,
Assistant Biologist, Bureau of Biological Survey.

FOR obvious reasons the breeding grounds of our water-fowl are of prime importance. The Biological Survey for several years has been investigating these areas in the various States, in order to ascertain the numbers and distribution of the birds, with a view to more effective cooperation in the conservation of the game supply.

Waterfowl shooting is one of the most fascinating of out-door sports. The myriads of birds that 50 years ago thronged our lakes, streams, and coastal waters gave promise of the pleasures of the chase and of a food supply for unlimited future years. Various causes, however, have changed this rosy outlook, and the rapid decrease in the numbers of waterfowl in the United States during the last three decades has drawn the attention of sportsmen and others to the necessity of careful conservation if the supply is to continue.

THE GREAT PLAINS AS EXTENSIVE BREEDING GROUNDS FOR WATERFOWL.

Ducks and other waterfowl breed chiefly on or near the lakes, ponds, marshes, and streams of the interior, and about the waters and marshes of the coast. In the eastern United States their breeding grounds are not extensive and are confined principally to isolated swamps and lakes or to narrow coastal strips. In most of the Western States similar conditions exist, although at some of the larger lakes in the arid interior great numbers of water birds rear their young. Such important breeding places in the West are the Klamath Lakes in southwestern Oregon, Malheur and Harney Lakes in southeastern Oregon, Great Salt Lake in Utah, Ruby and Franklin Lakes in Nevada, and the Stinking Spring Lakes on the Jicarilla Indian Reservation in northern New Mexico. The Great Plains, however, contain the

most extensive breeding grounds for waterfowl, particularly ducks. The portion of these grounds within the United States is but a southern extension of that in central southern Canada, which is the greatest breeding area for ducks on the North American Continent. The extreme southern end of the Great Plains, in Kansas, Oklahoma, Colorado, and northern Texas, has only widely scattered lakes and ponds, and thus harbors comparatively few waterfowl; but most of the remainder, lying chiefly in Nebraska, South Dakota, and North Dakota, is dotted with numberless lakes, ponds, and sloughs. (See Pls. XXX and XXXI.)

This important waterfowl breeding area is naturally divisible into two parts, one including the sand-hills of Nebraska, the other the lake region of North Dakota and South Dakota.

THE SAND-HILL REGION OF NEBRASKA AND ITS IDEAL BREEDING CONDITIONS.

The sand-hill region of Nebraska lies in the middle portion of the State and occupies, roughly, about one-third of the whole area, or approximately 25,000 square miles. It is a country of hills, few of them, however, over 300 feet in height, interspersed with valleys, many of these level floored and of considerable extent. The hills are heaps of sand, some with steep, others with gently sloping, sides, usually covered with a thick growth of grass or other low vegetation. but sometimes nearly bare or hollowed by the wind into the pits commonly called "blowouts." The lower valleys are all grass covered, and where not too wet are used as hay mead-Scattered through them are numerous lakes, ponds, and sloughs, and a few streams, many of the lakes several miles in length. The water is in many cases somewhat alkaline, though seldom sufficiently so to prevent the growth of vegetation. Some have grassy shores with little or no other plant life, either in the water or about their margins; others have a fringe of marsh vegetation; and still others have their surface almost entirely covered with grass or water plants. The physical features here have thus combined to produce ideal conditions, of which the water birds have not failed to take advantage.

Among the game birds that breed here abundantly are the mallard, gadwall, blue-winged teal, shoveller, pintail, red-

head, ruddy duck, and coot. Also, not a few canvas-back ducks pass the summer here, as well as a small number of baldpates, lesser scaup ducks, ring-necked ducks, greenwinged teals, Virginia rails, long-billed curlews, and some others.

Among the water birds not commonly considered game, the most abundant in this region are the black tern, Forster tern, American eared grebe, killdeer, and Wilson phalarope.

THE LAKE REGION OF NORTH DAKOTA AND SOUTH DAKOTA TENANTED BY WATER BIRDS.

The lake region of South Dakota comprises the eastern third of the State, or about 25,000 square miles; that of North Dakota covers about 45,000 square miles, or twothirds of the State, excluding only the southwestern corner beyond the Missouri River. This area in both States is mostly open, rolling country, with comparatively little timber, except along the streams, and is now largely under cultivation. The only hills of consequence are the bluffs along some of the rivers and the group of hills in northern North Dakota, known as the Turtle Mountains, which rise some 600 or 700 feet above the surrounding plains. Most of this lake region is sprinkled with innumerable sloughs, ponds, and lakes of all sizes up to that of Devils Lake, which is at present some 25 or 30 miles long. Some of these lakes and ponds have gravelly, sandy, or grassy shores, with no marsh vegetation, while many in places have excellent cover for birds, and others are entirely overspread with water plants. The lakes on the plains have little or no arboreal or shrubby vegetation about their margins, but those in the Turtle Mountains are almost surrounded by forest, which in many cases comes down to the very water's edge. Most of the lakes are shallow; some are so strongly alkaline that they offer no inducement to waterfowl; but nearly all are tenanted by water birds of some description.

Among the waterfowl breeding abundantly about the Dakota lakes are such well-known game birds as the mallard, gadwall, blue-winged teal, shoveller, pintail, redhead, ruddy duck, lesser scaup duck, canvas-back, coot, and sora rail; some of those tolerably common are the upland plover, willet,

baldplate, and locally the white-winged scoter; and a number of others occur in smaller numbers. Among other very abundant water birds now not commonly classed as game might be mentioned the black tern, common tern, herring gull, ring-billed gull, Franklin gull, American eared grebe, Holboell grebe, killdeer, Wilson phalarope, and marbled godwit; while many others occur less frequently.

UNDISTURBED BREEDING GROUNDS ESSENTIAL TO THE GAME SUPPLY.

The essential requirements of good breeding grounds are satisfactory cover, suitable nesting places, plenty of the right kind of food, particularly for the young birds, and an absence of disturbance during the breeding period and for a reasonable time before its beginning. Most waterfowl are dependent upon the proximity of water for their food, and consequently for breeding places; and, unlike many land birds, can not under necessity accommodate themselves to a very different environment. As a natural consequence, the destruction of their breeding places means the elimination of the birds. Comparatively little of such loss is due to natural causes, though seasons of protracted drought are sometimes, at least temporarily, responsible. Disappearance of waterfowl is caused usually by (1) the draining of lakes and marshes to acquire hay meadows or land for other farm purposes; (2) the establishing of summer resorts or a too close approach of a great number of other human habitations: (3) extensive cultivation of the country; or (4) disturbance from spring shooting or from other causes during the breeding season. The maintenance of the breeding grounds of waterfowl is all-important both for the preservation of the various species and for the continuation of a supply of birds which shall furnish food and sport for the hunter. Furthermore, the breeding grounds of waterfowl, once destroyed over any considerable area by any of the agencies above mentioned, are with difficulty restored.

The Great Plains waterfowl breeding grounds, taken as a whole, are the most extensive now remaining in the United States, and the only ones east of the lakes of Utah and northern New Mexico. Though Canada has a large area where



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FIG. 1.—CARPENTER LAKE IN THE TURTLE MOUNTAINS, NORTH DAKOTA.

This lake is the summer home of redheads, canvas-backs, lesser scaups, golden-eyes, and several other kinds of waterfowl.



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FIG. 2.—SMITH LAKE IN THE TURTLE MOUNTAINS, NORTH DAKOTA.

The home of ducks and other waterfowl.



FIG. 1.—THE SAND-HILLS OF NEBRASKA.

Whitewater Lake, and Pelican Lake in the distance. Both these lakes are the summer home of many kinds of ducks and other waterfowl.



FIG. 2.—SOUTH CODY LAKE, NEBRASKA.

In these marshes and meadows adjoining, many ducks, including blue-winged teals and mallards, are to be found in summer.

great numbers of waterfowl still breed, we can not afford to rely on that for our supply of game, since the settling up of the middle Provinces is almost sure ultimately to have a very important effect on the Canadian supply of ducks and other waterfowl. It therefore becomes all the more important that this Great Plains area be maintained as a breeding ground, particularly for ducks, and that it be even improved, if the waterfowl game supply of the States east of the Rocky Mountains is to be preserved for future generations.

FURTHER RESTRICTIONS ON HUNTING NEEDED.

Granting the need of efforts to save and increase the waterfowl supply, particularly in North and South Dakota, the question becomes one of means to this end. Many and various restrictions have been placed on hunting in all parts of our country during the last 20 or 30 years. During this time it has come to be realized that first of all the birds must be allowed to rear their young in peace and safety. With this in view, the practice of hunting in spring while the birds are settling on their breeding grounds has been abolished during the last few years throughout the United States. This has done more for the preservation of wild fowl than any other single measure. Highly important as is the comparatively recent cessation of spring shooting, it is just as important, if not even a prime necessity, that this prohibition continue, as probably nothing can take its place as a means of increasing the game supply. There doubtless was a time when the simple expedient of refraining from disturbing the birds during the breeding season, coupled with a very reasonable restriction on the number of birds taken, would have sufficed to protect the game and to maintain a supply for all future generations, but that day has now undoubtedly passed, and it is necessary to impose further restrictions upon hunting in order to save our waterfowl from complete extermination. This has long been recognized and has been given force in scores of State laws.

These restrictions, which upon examination will be found entirely reasonable, and without which little can be accomplished in the matter of game protection, may well be briefly mentioned here. In addition to the absolute protec-

tion that should be accorded the birds on their breeding grounds, it is obviously desirable to insure them a measurable degree of safety during their migrations to and from the Southland and also on their wintering grounds in the Southern and Eastern States. Protection on the wintering grounds is more particularly necessary because almost the entire waterfowl population of southern Canada and the central and eastern United States is concentrated into a comparatively small area during the winter season, and unrestricted slaughter in this place would have results almost as disastrous as an invasion of the breeding grounds. now realized that protection at these seasons can not be obtained unless market hunting is either abolished or so restricted that it will be no longer possible to kill enormous quantities of game in a single locality within a limited time. Furthermore, the transportation of large quantities of game for sale should be prohibited, since this is merely a corollary of the no-sale provisions now in force in many States.

A further important provision, and one that should everywhere receive careful consideration, is a reasonable bag limit. The day has long since passed when it should be permissible for one man to kill in a single day, say, 500 ducks, many times more than he could possibly make use of in any legitimate way, unless the sale of the birds for market be so considered.

Open-water shooting is often very destructive to game, and should be prohibited on all inland lakes and streams, particularly on such bodies of water as are used by waterfowl for breeding purposes.

Guns of large caliber, such as have been used to kill at a discharge whole flocks of ducks at a great distance, have no place in the outfit of a true sportsman; they are intended solely as a means of destruction for the benefit of market hunters, and their use should not be allowed at any time.

The use of motor boats in the pursuit of game is likewise undesirable, since it gives a hunter undue advantage, not only over the birds but over his fellow sportsmen, and should not be permitted in hunting waterfowl.

The hunting of birds by night or during the time between sunset and dark and that between daybreak and a half hour before sunrise is also a vicious practice. The reason is readily apparent, for birds must have some part of the day in which to rest and feed; therefore to keep them disturbed during the hours of dusk or darkness, as well as during the daylight, is too continuous a pursuit. It is even desirable, as some States already have recognized, to allow shooting only on certain days of the week, in order that the birds may have time to recuperate from the onslaught of hunters.

If present restrictions do not result in an increase of the game supply, resort must be had to a further shortening of the hunting season, so that the number of birds killed may be appreciably diminished. It may be necessary even to declare a closed season for a period of years on a number of game birds which it is now permissible to shoot during an open season of considerable length. This expedient has already been tried with marked success in the case of game birds, both waterfowl and others, and under some circumstances is, at least locally, about the only remedy for the threatened extinction of certain birds.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE RESERVATIONS FOR PROTECTING WATERFOWL.

As an additional measure of protection it is extremely desirable that there be established in the Great Plains region a number of refuges for waterfowl and other game, in order that the birds may have certain places for breeding in spring and summer and for rest during their migration journeys. There are already on the Great Plains eight Federal reserves, three of which, however, are of little or no value for waterfowl, and it is hoped that it may be possible to establish others in the near future. It is within the power of the various States to set aside State game refuges, as has been done with admirable results in Minnesota and North Dakota. Individuals as well as States can aid in this matter by preventing all hunting on their lands. This is particularly desirable in cases where one person controls all the land about a lake suitable for breeding waterfowl. The important results that can come from such preserves are exemplified on an estate in Rolette County, N. Dak., where the owner has for many years protected the birds on Island Lake, a body of water

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some 2 square miles in extent; and it is very much to be hoped that his success may inspire many others in this and other States to follow his example.

With adequate Federal, State, and private game reservations in the States within the waterfowl breeding area of the Great Plains, and with proper restrictions on hunting, the preservation and even the increase of the game supply may confidently be expected, to the great benefit of present and future generations.

THE WEED PROBLEM IN AMERICAN AGRICUL-TURE.

By H. R. CATES,

Scientific Assistant, Office of Forage-Crop Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.

THE control of weeds is one of the oldest and still one of the most important problems connected with agriculture. Because we have always had weeds with us, there is a tendency to accept the situation as inevitable and one of the necessary evils connected with farming; consequently no sufficient, general, and concerted effort is being made to overcome the great loss which they cause. Yet the weed fight is one of the standard routine operations on the farm, and it represents a large proportion of the labor necessary to produce crops. No other single feature of farming requires such universal and unceasing attention as do the weeds.

WAYS IN WHICH WEEDS CAUSE INCREASINGLY LARGE LOSSES ANNUALLY.

The annual loss to the farmers caused by weeds is enormous. A discouraging feature regarding this loss is the fact that it grows greater each year.

Weeds are costly and injurious in many ways. They injure crops both in quantity and in quality and greatly increase the labor involved in farming. Other conditions being equal, the yield of most crops is inversely proportional to the growth of weeds. An intertilled crop in which weeds are allowed to grow unmolested is usually an entire failure. Considering the principal crops in the United States, it is estimated that weeds reduce the yield of corn by 10 per cent; tame hay, 3 to 16 per cent; potatoes, 6 to 10 per cent; spring grain, 12 to 15 per cent; winter grain, 5 to 9 per cent; tobacco, fruit, and truck crops, 0 to 5 per cent; pasture, 5 to 50 per cent.

In damage to quality of product due to weeds, the principal sufferers are the small grains, pastures, hay, grass, and seed crops. The annual loss to the spring-grain growers of the Northwest due to dockage of the marketed grain because of weed seeds present amounts to from 3 to 10 per cent of the crop. Winter grain suffers less from weeds than the spring-grain crop.

The extra labor required to keep weeds under control is probably the greatest economic loss which they cause. cost of weeds falls most heavily on the intertilled crops. merous experiments have shown that in growing most intertilled crops cultivation is of minor importance except to eliminate weeds.1 (See Pl. XXXII, fig. 1.) Even in the semiarid regions, where summer fallow is practiced, presumably to conserve moisture and control weeds, experiments have shown that if weeds be eliminated from the summer fallow, cultivating the land during the summer has little or no effect on the succeeding crop yields. Tillage is by far the most expensive feature of growing intertilled crops (Pl. XXXII, fig. 2). Numerous cost-account records collected by the Office of Farm Management, United States Department of Agriculture, show that on the average diversified American farm the cost of tillage operations comprises from 30 to 40 per cent of the total cost of farm operations. Probably half the total amount of cultivation required is necessary only for controlling weeds, and in many instances practically all intertillage could be eliminated without affecting crop yields if by other means weeds were prevented from growing. Most of the hand labor involved in cultivating intertilled crops other than cotton and truck is necessary only to remove weeds that have been missed by the cultivators.

Such weeds as wild onion,2 bitterweed,2 and the ragweeds4 cause great annoyance to dairymen and milk dealers. These weeds, when eaten by milch cows, give a very disagreeable odor and flavor to the milk, and consequently to all other dairy products. When cows eat such weeds in large quantities the milk is not marketable. The control of pasture weeds is a big problem for dairymen in certain areas. (See Pl. XXXIII, fig. 1.)

Allium spp. ² Helenium tenuifolium. 4 Ambrosia app.

Bureau of Plant Industry Bulletin 257, "The Weed Factor in the Cultivation of Corn," by J. S. Cates and H. R. Cox.

Very often the price of land in a community is largely regulated by the number and character of the weeds present. In many areas of the South Atlantic and Gulf Coast States, where nut-grass' abounds, some farms are so badly infested with this weed that their value is reduced almost half, and cases can be cited in which farms have actually been abandoned because of the Presence of nut-grass. In some of the areas of the Northern States farms have been abandoned because of quack-grass.

Weeds result not only in big financial loss but also in great annoyance. Diseases such as hay fever could be eliminated almost entirely by adopting efficient methods for controlling the incidental weeds found along roadsides, in vacant fields, and in waste places.

The loss of cattle and sheep due to poisonous weeds is very great. On the United States National Forest ranges alone the loss in 1916 amounted to 6,648 cattle and 16,273 sheep, besides a number of horses, goats, and other animals.

As host plants for many of our worst plant diseases and insect pests, weeds are responsible for an enormous loss. The recent rapid spread of white-pine blister rust, which is threatening several hundred million dollars' worth of the most valuable pine forests, is due entirely to the presence of forest weeds belonging to the genus Ribes, which includes wild gooseberries and raspberries. If all the members of the genus Ribes were cleared out of the white-pine forests, the disease would disappear automatically. Such insects as the cotton boll weevil and wheat-field chinch bugs usually spend the winters protected by weeds allowed to grow around the borders of the fields.

Many lakes and navigable streams become choked with water weeds; navigation is interfered with and it becomes necessary to cut out the weeds, a difficult task.² Water weeds give trouble in irrigation ditches and canals also. They often make a growth almost sufficient to stop the flow of water. (See Pl. XXXIII, fig. 2.) A conspicuous example is the water hyacinth,³ which presents a serious problem in many of the canals in the Southern States, particularly in

¹ Cyperus rotundus.

²The water weed *Elodea canadensis* is likely to prove troublesome in this respect.

Bichhornia crossipes.

Florida and Louisiana. In maintaining waterways, the cost of keeping weeds under control must be considered.

The esthetic aspect of the weed problem also must be considered. Those farms upon which the "incidental" weeds are kept cut along the fence rows, in vacant fields, and in waste places are much more attractive and salable than farms upon which the weeds are allowed to grow undisturbed. A good lawn free from weeds is a pleasure and a satisfaction worth far more than the effort and expense necessary to maintain it. (See Pl. XXXIV.)

Weeds are injurious and detrimental in so many ways that it is extremely difficult to calculate the damage which they cause. This damage, however, is much greater than is apparent. One big fact regarding weeds is that they increase in numbers each year until their presence is accepted as the normal condition and their detrimental effect overlooked. Insect pests and plant diseases that appear only occasionally command much more attention in proportion to the damage they cause than do weeds, because they are more or less a novelty and farmers are not accustomed to them.

HOW WEEDS REDUCE CROP YIELDS.

Just why weeds reduce crop yields is not exactly clear, but even where plant food, moisture, and light are sufficient for both weeds and the crop, the crop yields generally will be lower than where, under similar conditions, weeds are not present. Experiments have shown that in most cases the total amount of plant food removed by the weeds and a crop grown together is far less than the amount removed by a crop grown alone. For example, if weeds are allowed to grow unmolested in a cornfield, the total amount of plant food removed by the weeds and the corn growing together is far less than the amount removed by a similar field of corn in which the weeds are kept out. Several theories and explanations have been advanced regarding this fact. Root interference is thought by many to be the principal factor involved, and it undoubtedly plays an important part.

HABITS OF WEEDS OFTEN SIMILAR TO THOSE OF THE CROPS THEY INFEST.

Another advantage the weeds have is that of adaptation to crops. Specific weeds are troublesome in fields and crops

in which conditions are most favorable for their development. In other words, the troublesome weeds in a specific crop, such as spring wheat, are those plants whose life history and habit of growth are such that they normally thrive best under the conditions favorable for the production of the crop in question. Two of the most prevalent annual weeds in spring-wheat fields are the wild mustard and the wild oat. These weeds are enabled to exist because they mature seeds which shatter and reinfest the land before the wheat is ready to harvest. A combination of many factors enables weeds to compete successfully with cultivated crops and greatly to reduce the crop yields.

In harmful effect weeds vary extremely. Just as two cultivated crops grown together are not always injurious one to the other, so weeds may not injure the desired crop. Investigations at the Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station have shown that by growing certain combinations of crops, such as wheat and flax, two-thirds of a normal yield of flax can be produced without reducing the yield of wheat. The presence of other crops, however, as oats in a wheat field, even in small quantities, will reduce the yield of wheat materially. The same variation appears in the effect of weeds in grain fields. Many farmers contend that the presence of wild mustard in a field of rank-growing wheat is beneficial rather than harmful, because it does not reduce the vield of wheat and the stiff mustard stalks act as a support for the wheat, preventing it from falling down and lodging. Other weeds, however, as wild oats and sow thistle, often greatly reduce the yields of wheat. This, again, strongly indicates that the reductions in crop yields due to weeds are not entirely a question of plant food, moisture, and light.

WEEDS BENEFICIAL IN SOME CASES.

Contrary to the usual opinion, weeds are not always harmful; in fact, in some cases they are a great blessing, especially on those farms where proper crop rotations are not practiced and where shiftless methods are employed. (See Pl. XXXV, fig. 1.) Investigations have shown that crop yields in most cases are related directly to the amount of organic matter in the soil. Until efficient cropping systems have been established which include crops that add organic

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matter to the soil, this material must be furnished by weeds, farm manures, and crop residues.

On many idle fields the weed growth is sufficient to act as a soil binder and prevent erosion which otherwise would occur, especially in many parts of the South. Probably this is the greatest benefit which weeds confer. Weeds, however, are an advantage only on those farms on which efficient cropping systems and the most effective general farm practices are not followed. As general farm practices and conditions improve, the disadvantages of weeds become greater and more apparent.

CROP ROTATION A FOE TO WEEDS.

The high cost of weeds in many areas is largely the result of single-crop farming. Crop rotation and diversification are the greatest foes of weeds, and usually where a single-crop system of farming is practiced weeds are exceedingly troublesome. In many instances lands have become so foul with weeds that certain crops can no longer be grown profitably upon them. This is true in many of the fields in Louisiana which have been continuously cropped to rice for a number of years, until those weeds which thrive under conditions favorable to the production of rice have become so prevalent that it is no longer profitable to grow the crop.

In California, where wheat has been growing continuously for a number of years, the land has become very foul with weeds. The prevalence of weeds is forcing the introduction of crop rotations and is decreasing the acreage of wheat in that area.

The hard spring-wheat area, composed largely of North Dakota, western and southern Minnesota, and eastern South Dakota, is now going through the same evolution. In this area the grain fields, which have been continuously cropped to wheat for years, have become so badly contaminated with such weeds as wild oats, wild mustard, French weed, and sow thistle that in many instances wheat can no longer be grown profitably. These conditions are being remedied, and the loss due to weeds is being greatly reduced by the adoption of efficient cropping systems and general farm practices, giving due consideration to those methods and practices which are most effective in controlling weeds.

HOW TO CONTROL WEEDS.

To control or eradicate a weed it is first necessary to determine the kind, the character and habits of growth and reproduction, and sufficient about its life history to fix the time when it is most susceptible to treatment.

With regard to methods of control and eradication, weeds may be divided into two classes:

The first class is composed of those weeds which, because of their habits of growth, require special methods or treatments. This class includes such weeds as Canada thistle, quack-grass, hawkweeds, nut-grass, Johnson grass, perennial sow thistle, and many others. These weeds are extremely difficult to kill, and specific methods must be determined for each one, based on a study of the life history and habit of growth.

The second class is composed of annuals, biennials, and such perennials as require no special treatment to kill them. These are often termed incidental weeds. In this case the problem is not one of killing but of controlling.

Comparatively few specific weeds require special methods for their control, and for many of these effective methods have already been determined. After effective methods shall have been evolved for controlling the remaining individual weed problems, such as are presented by nut-grass, sow thistle, hawkweeds, and others, the next step will be to incorporate these special methods into such cropping systems and farm organizations that weeds will be controlled incidentally. Our farm organization should be such that the systems of farming employed and the general farm practices involved will keep weeds under control automatically or incidentally in connection with the regular farm operations. This is true farm economy, because any labor involved in controlling weeds is performed not to create a profit in itself but to avoid a loss.

In addition to finding effective and practicable methods for controlling many of the most pernicious and troublesome weeds, such as quack-grass, Johnson grass, Canada thistle, and others, weed studies have supplied much general information regarding these pests, methods that are effective and practicable in one area may not be applicable in another area where natural conditions are dissimilar and entirely different systems of farming are practiced. Therefore it is necessary to determine for each area just what methods are most advisable under the existing conditions. Yet some general precautionary measures and practices will be found beneficial and applicable under all conditions. These measures, though well known to most farmers, are not practiced. For instance, most of our small-grain and hay-field weeds have been introduced by sowing impure seeds. Many other weeds are to-day being widely disseminated in the same manner. With the improved cleaning machinery available (see Pl. XXXV, fig. 2) it is usually not difficult to clean seed, yet a large proportion of the seed sown is foul with weed seeds.

In small-grain and hay farming no feature of weed control is more important than the use of clean seed. The cost of cleaning seed is small and the results very marked, yet this fact has not been sufficiently emphasized to impress the farmers with its true importance.

Many weeds are propagated only by seeds. Weed seeds are produced in large numbers along roadsides, fence rows, and ditch banks, in vacant fields, and in waste places, and the seeds are scattered by wind, water, birds, and other agents. By cutting the weeds before the seeds are sufficiently mature to germinate, an enormous amount of trouble and labor and loss could be avoided; but only the most progressive farmers do this. (See Pl. XXXVI, fig. 1.)

A systematic rotation of crops is one of the most feasible and effective means of controlling weeds. Universal crop rotations will not come, however, especially in the small-grain areas, until forced by economic and agronomic conditions, in which weeds will be an important factor. As the lands became foul with weeds, necessitating a rotation of crops, the one-crop system of small-grain farming has gradually been forced farther west. In the westward advance of agriculture, the custom has persisted of growing small grain on the newly developed lands until they become so foul with weeds that crop rotations are necessary. Thus crop rotation is now being introduced in the hard spring-wheat area.



FIG. 1.—CORN FROM CULTIVATED AND NONCULTIVATED PLATS.

Which shock is corn that has had no intertillage? One is from an experimental plat at Arlington Farm, Va., which received the usual cultivation, the other from an adjacent plat that was merely scraped with a hoe to keep down the weeds. There was practically no difference in yield.



FIG 2.—THE PRIMARY OBJECT OF THE INTERTILLAGE OF CORN IS TO CONTROL WEEDS.



FIG. 1.—A WEEDY PASTURE.

Many pasture weeds can be controlled by mowing before the weed seeds are mature.



Weeds are often troublesome in irrigation ditches, and the water is an excellent carrier of weed seeds, transporting them from one farm to another.

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A GOOD LAWN, FREE FROM WEEDS; AN ESSENTIAL FOR AN ATTRACTIVE COUNTRY HOME.



FIG. 1.—A WEEDY VACANT FIELD.

Weeds in vacant fields are often beneficial in adding organic matter to the soil.



Many weeds are introduced by sowing uncleaned seed, because proper cleaning precautions are not taken.

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FIG. 1.—A WELL-KEPT ROADSIDE.

Mowing before seed maturity will control many kinds of weeds in fence rows and at roadsides.



FIG. 2.—KILLING WEEDS WITH CHEMICAL PLANT POISONS IN THE ALLEYS OF WASHINGTON, D. C.

The use of chemicals, such as salt, arsenite of soda, nitrate of soda, iron sulphate, copper sulphate, cyanamid, and others, for controlling weeds is not generally advisable. Where it is desired to kill all vegetation, as on tennis courts, walks, and driveways, chemicals can be used to good advantage. (See Pl. XXXVI, fig. 2.) Many of the railroads are now using chemicals for keeping down the vegetation along their rights of way. For general weed control, however, the use of chemicals is a complex process, expensive, and uncertain. In addition, it overlooks a fundamental principle of weed control, namely, that the work should be incidental and in connection with other farm operations in so far as possible.

An important requirement in weed control is to keep on the alert for new weeds which may be introduced and for native weeds which are developing pestiferous tendencies. When any new weed appears it should immediately be called to the attention of some one who can identify it. Many of the worst weeds have been introduced from abroad and have become disseminated through careless and neglectful In fact, comparatively few native plants are methods. troublesome weeds. By immediately reporting the appearance of any new weed which may prove troublesome, measures may be adopted for keeping it under control before it has gained sufficient headway to do serious damage. If the first appearance in this country of weeds such as Russian thistle,1 field hawkweed,2 and Canada thistle had been reported to National or State agricultural officers, much of the loss and trouble which they are causing might have been avoided. It is important to report the appearance of new weeds and to take precautions to prevent their dissemination.

Before the most efficient farm organization and cropping system for controlling weeds can be perfected, more definite information regarding weeds and weed-control methods must be obtained. First, it is necessary to determine the weed problem and the individual weeds which are causing trouble in a given region and make a detailed study of these to find when and how the weeds may be destroyed. These investigations should include studies of the biological habits of weeds in somewhat the same manner that the entomologist

¹ Salsola pestifer. ² Hieracium pratense. ² Cirsium arvense.

and plant pathologist study the life histories and habits of insects and fungi. The object of such studies will be to find the weak point in each weed's career and, having found it, adopt a cropping system and farm practice that will utilize the known weakness. Probably the first important feature of weed control is to know when the individual weeds are most susceptible to injury.

Every locality has individual weed problems peculiar to itself. These problems must be studied in connection with the general tillage systems and other farm operations and practices of the locality. It is just as important to know the general farm practices and customs as it is to know the weeds. One should also know what practices are most injurious to the weeds. In other words, a study of the weed problem not only involves the individual weeds, but includes a study of farm organizations and other general farm practices and conditions.

Not only is it necessary to obtain more definite, clear-cut information about weeds and methods of weed control, but it is just as important to impress farmers with the seriousness of the situation and arouse public sentiment to the support of measures which will lessen the damage caused by weeds.

Practically every State has passed a weed law of some sort, which, if enforced, would do much to relieve the situation. Some of these laws are adequate and practicable; others are absurdly impracticable. In few of the States. however, are these laws enforced. This is because the importance of the weed problem and the loss due to weeds has neither been sufficiently impressed upon the public nor brought to attention in such a manner as to create a public sentiment that will justify enforcing the weed laws. Without the consent and support of the people it is difficult to enforce such laws. Some very effective weed laws are now being enforced in the Canadian Provinces, especially Saskatchewan and Alberta, where a single-crop system of grain farming is practiced. Eventually some weed legislation will probably be enforced throughout the spring-grain areas. Before any adequate weed law can be satisfactorily or advisedly enforced, however, it will be necessary to create a favorable sentiment among the farmers by giving them

more definite information regarding effective and practicable control methods. A national weed law prohibiting the interstate shipment of seed, feed, and other materials that contain viable weed seeds if the contained weed seeds are in violation of the statutes of the State into which they are being shipped would be of great advantage in checking the further distribution of weeds.

Cooperation is one of the first essentials of success in any big commercial enterprise. Cooperation among the farmers is just as essential for controlling weeds. Weed control is a community problem rather than one for the individual farmer to solve, and without community action the efforts of the individual farmer are usually discouraging. This is true because where weeds are allowed to grow undisturbed they produce sufficient seeds each year to infest the adjacent lands. Agricultural clubs and other farm organizations could perhaps undertake no more important cooperative work than that of controlling weeds. The advantages of community action for the control of weeds can not be too strongly emphasized.

REST ROOMS FOR WOMEN IN MARKETING CENTERS.

By ANNE M. Evans,

Investigator in Women's Rural Organizations, Bureau of Markets.

MANY REST ROOMS ESTABLISHED WITH THE HELP OF WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS.

DEST rooms have been established in more than 200 counties In the United States to meet the needs of the country woman in town on business. They provide a place where the farm woman has a right, without asking any favors, to. the use of facilities for rest and refreshment. They have been established by women's rural organizations in cooperation with other local organizations, with individuals, and with village, town, or county authorities; by business corporations operating private city markets; and by individual merchants. Where farm women's organizations have been interested in establishing rest rooms, local farm women's clubs have been able to arouse the necessary community interest in the need for rest rooms to insure their financial support. This has been done through cooperating with other local farm women's clubs, with organizations of women in town, with civic leagues, with chambers of commerce, and with county agents.

In cooperating with other clubs in establishing a rest room, any local farm women's club may take the initiative. Opportunity is given at club meetings for discussing the need for a rest room, and other local clubs may be asked to arrange similar discussions. Such cooperation is facilitated in rural communities where local clubs meet together for joint sessions three or four times a year. A rest room was thus established in Guthrie, Okla., through the cooperation of four women's rural clubs. At one of these meetings the need for a rest room was presented for consideration. After much discussion a committee of three was appointed at a joint meeting to make inquiry with regard to rooms which

might be secured and to report the cost of maintaining such rooms. This committee interviewed the business men of the city, but met with little encouragement. They were told that rest rooms had been tried and were a failure; that some of the stores had rest rooms already, but that they were not used by the country people. After three weeks of effort a member of the committee learned of a vacant room in the courthouse that might be used for a rest room if permission could be secured from the county commissioners. Members of the committee and their friends called upon each of the commissioners to request the use of the room and ask his advice as to how to proceed. As a result the matter was brought formally before the commissioners at their next meeting, and the room was placed at the disposal of the members of these organizations. This success was reported at a joint meeting of the clubs, and another committee was appointed to attend to furnishing the room and to consider methods of raising the necessary funds for its maintenance. At Grand Junction, Colo., where a similar method was pursued. a room was not available in a public building, but funds were appropriated to pay the rent of a room in a convenient location.

Through their organizations town and country women have cooperated in providing rest rooms near railroad stations where the waiting-room facilities at the stations were inadequate. They have cooperated in establishing libraries which provide convenient and adequate rest rooms for town and country women. In Traer, Iowa, all the women's organizations held a joint meeting to discuss the need for a library. By continued discussion before the clubs and by special work in small groups sufficient community interest was aroused to warrant the authorization of a library tax. Women's organizations raised funds in various ways. A number of public-spirited individuals donated the funds for purchasing the ground and constructing a \$10,000 library. In the plans for the building, provision was made for suitable rest rooms. Aroused community interest frequently results in securing a vacant room in the town hall, county courthouse, public market, or other public building.

Frequently the county agent, as the representative of the rural interests of a county, will take the initiative and secure

the cooperation of the chamber of commerce or the county commissioners. One rest room at Chickasha, Okla., was a portion curtained off from a large room used for the offices of the county agent and the secretary of the chamber of commerce. At Salisbury, N. C., the rest rooms adjoined the offices of the county agent and were located in a building used as a community center. The civic league of Knoxville, Tenn., assisted the women's organizations in securing a rest room on the second floor of the public market building. Frequently rest rooms are provided in connection with women's exchanges. A county federation of home economics clubs held their regular meetings in one of these rooms.

As examples of rest rooms established by private corporations or business houses, many instances may be cited. At Washington, D. C., a rest room was established in a private market because the superintendent of the market had felt the desirability of it. Frequently rest rooms are provided in dry-goods stores and in grocery stores. A rest room at Kalamazoo, Mich., has been in use since 1882, and has become the common meeting place for country people living in different directions from the city. The number of country women dealing with these business houses warranted the establishment of rest rooms by the proprietors to meet the needs of their customers.

Two main principles underlie the successful establishment and maintenance of rest rooms. Either there must be a demand arising from business interests or there must be a community interest which recognizes the need for a rest room for women. Such community interest may be aroused and stimulated by the work of women's clubs.

EQUIPMENT SIMPLE AND DURABLE.

The furnishings of a well-equipped rest room should be simple, comfortable, and durable. As an example of rest rooms furnished by a group of country women's clubs whose members personally donate pieces of furniture or secure them as gifts from various interested merchants, one may be cited which is provided with rocking-chairs, straight chairs, a table with reading material, oilcloth-covered lunch tables, a couch, a crib, and a screen. Free telephone service and electric lights are furnished. Clean, washable couch covers

and clean sheets and pillowcases may be secured from the matron in charge. A gas burner is provided for heating water or milk. The room is heated by a coal stove.

A well-equipped, steam-heated rest room was provided for in the courthouse in Norwalk, Ohio, when the building was planned. Plate XXXVII, figure 1, shows the interior of this rest room and the matron in charge. Simplicity may be noted in the arrangement of the room and in its furnishings. The screen has been set aside to show the couch. The women's organizations were allowed \$100 from county appropriations to purchase the furnishings of this room. A first-aid equipment for use in emergencies has been found helpful to the matron in charge. Pure drinking water and sanitary toilet facilities are necessary adjuncts to every rest room. Plate XXXVII, figure 2, shows the rest room established in connection with a market at Washington, D. C. The room was provided by tearing out two stalls and building a balconv over this space in the main market room. A matron is employed eight hours a day. Free telephone service to all departments of the market is furnished. A pay telephone for city and long-distance calls is provided, together with comfortable chairs, desk, and writing material, screened couch, and adequate toilet conveniences. This room was furnished at the expense of the market and is in constant use.

FINANCING THE REST ROOM DEPENDS UPON WOMEN AT FIRST.

In financing a rest room two items of expense are to be considered—the initial cost of furnishing and the annual cost of maintenance. The latter item includes the cost of rent, heat, service, and incidental expenses. A rest room may be financed wholly or partly by the women's organizations until arrangements are made to meet the expenses through public appropriations. It may be financed through town or county appropriations, or by private individuals, or by any of these in combination. Usually the permanently established rest room is located in the town hall or county courthouse, since appropriation can be made annually for the maintenance of such rooms from public funds. When financed by private individuals, the money is either a bequest or gift, or the money spent for the rest room is considered



FIG. 1.—REST ROOM IN COURTHOUSE AT NORWALK, OHIO.

A woman's organization was allowed \$100 from county appropriations to buy the furniture for this room.



FIG. 2.—REST ROOM PROVIDED BY A CITY MARKET IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

A large sign which may be seen through the window calls attention to its location in a balcony above the main floor.

by the merchants as bringing returns in increased trade. In such cases there is no expense to the women making use of the room, and the value of the cooperation of women's organizations lies in their making known the location of the room and thus insuring a more general use of it. Where women's organizations have undertaken to raise funds they have done it through private solicitation or contributions of food, furnishings, and money; by forming a rest-room society; by appropriations from the local clubs; and by other means.

At Grand Junction, Colo., money was obtained by private solicitation and county appropriation to finance a rest room. The furnishings for the room and the matron's salary were provided by an organization composed of a number of rural women's clubs. One hundred and fifty dollars was appropriated from county funds and a like sum from town funds to pay the cost of the rent and heat of a convenient room, as no room was available in any of the public buildings. For furnishing the room, contributions were solicited from members of the organization and from the merchants in town. To pay the matron's salary of \$25 a month, pledge cards were issued, each calling for the payment of 5 cents a month. In two years the demands for other activities in connection with the rest room developed, and the monthly expenditure increased from \$60 to \$160 a month. This additional amount was provided by profits from a restaurant established in connection with the rest room and by subletting space for a woman's exchange. The total receipts from all sources average \$160 a month, which amount is expended in carrying on the various activities undertaken.

At Bellaire, Mich., a rest-room society was formed. A room was secured free of charge in the basement of the courthouse. The aid societies of the various churches and other women's organizations contributed a hundred dollars toward furnishing it. The rest-room society, with annual dues of 50 cents a member, managed the finances and supervised the room. No matron was employed, the cleaning being done by the janitor of the town hall as a part of his regular duties.

In Norwalk, Ohio, a temporary financial arrangement was made. Funds were raised by the women's organizations by various means to pay part of the rent of a room over the post office. This plan was continued for a year, until definite arrangements could be made for a rest room in the courthouse. The other expenses were paid from the profit on dinners served by the matron, from the sale of contributions of food, and from money given by interested women. The interest manifested and the use made of this room demonstrated to the county commissioners the need of providing a suitable room. A rest room was therefore included in the plans for the new courthouse, and \$100 was allowed from county appropriation for the furnishings and equipment, which were selected by the women's organizations. The women's societies also paid the matron's salary until it was provided for from appropriations made for the general maintenance of the building.

Subscriptions ranging from \$1 to \$10 were made by 7 home-economics clubs and 25 school and civic leagues of Prince William County, Va., to raise funds to pay the cost of maintaining a rest room at Manassas, the county seat.

The total cost of maintenance is about \$25 a month; \$12 a month is paid for rent, \$8 for the caretaker, and about \$5 for lighting, water, and incidentals. The country people bring in an occasional load of wood for heating. The women's home-economics clubs furnished the room by means of donations solicited from local merchants.

In financing rest rooms it may be seen, therefore, that women's organizations do not raise funds to maintain the room permanently, but they often create sufficient public sentiment to secure a heated room in a convenient public building or sufficient county appropriations to pay for rent and heat. Janitor service is frequently furnished, but in many instances the value of a matron's service is sufficiently appreciated to warrant the raising of funds by the women's organizations to pay her salary. The women's organizations frequently furnish the equipment, or where the county appropriates the funds for the furnishings the women assist in making the selections. They also provide small amounts of money needed for incidentals, such as laundering linen, replenishing first-aid equipment, and furnishing magazines or ornamental plants. A permanent rest-room committee may be appointed to confer with the matron, supervise the rooms, and report the needs as they arise.

EMPLOYMENT OF A MATRON MAKES THE REST ROOM MORE USEFUL.

In rest rooms employing matrons many activities can be carried on which otherwise would not be possible. The matron not only sees that the rest room is kept in a clean, sanitary condition at all times, but she may care for a sleeping child or assist in providing hot lunches at noon for women and children. She may care for packages which otherwise would have to be carried from place to place. In some rest rooms the matron takes charge of the woman's exchange, which usually is supervised by a committee from the women's clubs.

The matron may supervise the general cleaning and attend personally to keeping the room in proper condition during the day, or she may do all the cleaning herself. Many women needing relaxation will not make use of the couch in a public rest room unless the headrest is provided with a washable cover. The crib must be provided with clean sheets. The matron not only keeps sheets and covers, to be used when necessary, but takes charge of the towels, soap, and other supplies to be furnished upon request.

The country children attending the schools in Grand Junction, Colo., are able to get hot lunches at the rest room established by their mothers. The matron assists and supervises the children. The use of the rest room at noon for this purpose is very common where a matron is employed. Where only a janitor is employed it has been necessary in some instances to prohibit young people from using the room, owing to the resultant disorder.

A WELL-MANAGED REST ROOM HELPS MANY WOMEN.

The rest room may become the center for various community activities. From the establishment of the rest room at Grand Junction, Colo., has developed a rural civic library of 150 books, a woman's exchange, a labor and commodity exchange conducted by means of a bulletin board, and a restaurant where light lunches are served from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m. Thirty-five people may be accommodated at one time.

The properly established rest room meets the daily needs of a large number of country women. At Manassas, Va.,

the average number of farm women using the rest rooms established through the activity of the farm women's organizations is from 15 to 20 daily. Other rest rooms are much more extensively used. Guest books in which to record the names and addresses of all coming to the room are sometimes provided. Some of these books show a registration of more than 1,000 women in one month. On Saturdays, or holidays, and on special occasions, the rooms are generally occupied to their full capacity.

The usefulness of a rest room to farm women depends upon its location, its management, and their feeling of right or interest in its facilities. When the rest room is established through the efforts of the women's organizations, its location and management are likely to meet the needs of a larger number of country women than when it is established in connection with a private business. Further, a rest room established by the concerted action of an organized group or by a community is usually more widely known and better appreciated by country women, not only because of the sense of interest or ownership which they feel, but because the members of the organizations are in a position to determine the location and management best suited to the largest number of women, and to give the widest publicity to its usefulness.

The rest room located in a public building is likely to be more useful than one located in a private building. When located on the first floor or in the basement, rest rooms are more convenient for women with children and women carrying packages than if placed on upper floors. Rest rooms located on the main floor of the market are more useful than those in a wing of the building. Rest rooms convenient to places for hitching teams or parking automobiles, or near interurban stations, and also convenient to market, to the grocer, and to the department store, where the country people trade, are more useful than those located at some distance.

COOPERATIVE CAMPAIGNS FOR THE CONTROL OF GROUND SQUIRRELS, PRAIRIE-DOGS, AND JACK RABBITS.

By W. B. Bril.,

Assistant Biologist, Bureau of Biological Survey.

ATIVE RODENTS cause losses of crops in the United States amounting to many millions of dollars each year. Everywhere present, when a region is first settled they persist and frequently adapt themselves in a surprisingly short time to feed upon cultivated crops. Because of their great abundance and remarkable fecundity they have resisted successfully the sporadic individual efforts of the tillers of the soil to eradicate them. Their long-continued inroads into the profits of the farmer, when not disregarded altogether, are too frequently looked upon as inevitable. Often the margin destroyed by them makes the difference between a comfortable profit and a wretched failure. Even experienced agriculturists too commonly fail to realize the enormity of their cumulative exactions upon the financial resources of the country and the possibility of applying more intelligently the means of combating them.

Farming operations tend to provide ideal conditions for the abnormal multiplication of those rodents which readily turn from supplies of native vegetation to feed upon growing crops or stored agricultural products. Indiscriminate destruction of their natural enemies, the hawks, owls, and predatory mammals, disturbs still further the balance in nature by removing these checks upon them. Hence, the numbers of these animals have increased, as have also the losses inflicted by them, in spite of individual attempts to control them. Under these conditions lands cleared of the pests by progressive farmers soon become reinfested by invasion from adjacent areas where less thrifty practices permit these rodents to remain and multiply.

THE BOUNTY SYSTEM INADEQUATE.

The payment of bounties for the destruction of native rodents has cost States, counties, and townships excessive sums annually. In 1916 counties in Iowa paid \$77,279 in

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bounties upon pocket gophers alone. Of this sum a single county paid \$11,138. One county in California paid out in bounties upon ground squirrels \$18,570 during 1916. Such typical bounty expenditures have usually served to reduce the numbers by less than the annual reproductive increase, thus leaving each year a larger breeding stock of mature animals to propagate and with their progeny to continue their devastating ravages upon the crops.

GREAT DAMAGE DONE BY RODENTS.

In States west of the Mississippi River prairie-dogs, ground squirrels, pocket gophers, rabbits, cotton rats, and field mice have taken a continually increasing toll from the crops of wheat, oats, corn, barley, and other cereals; from alfalfa, potatoes, beans, fruit, melons, and almonds; and from pasture ranges. States east of this boundary have suffered heavily from the depredations of rabbits, woodchucks, and meadow, pine, and white-footed mice in gardens, field and truck crops, orchards, and vineyards. The value of crops destroyed annually from these sources in the United States has recently been estimated to be in excess of \$150,-000,000. This amount is based upon information regarding conditions reported by field representatives of the Biological Survey, county agricultural agents, other competent officials, and farmers; it does not include losses inflicted by house mice and rats.

Some idea of the losses suffered by individual States from native rodents may be obtained from the following estimates recently submitted by directors of agricultural extension: Montana, \$15,000,000 to \$20,000,000; North Dakota, \$6,000,000 to \$9,000,000; Kansas, \$12,000,000; Colorado, \$2,000,000; California, \$20,000,000; Wyoming, 15 per cent of all crops; Nevada, 10 to 15 per cent of all crops, or \$1,000,000; New Mexico, \$1,200,000 loss to crops and double this amount to range. In a single county of Virginia losses of orchard trees from depredations of pine mice during the last two or three years are estimated at not less than \$200,000. Similarly heavy losses are being disclosed in other States as attention is being directed to these causes of decreased production, causes which have too frequently been overlooked, unrecog-

nized, or considered unavoidable. That such losses constitute an entirely unnecessary drain upon the productive capacity of the farms, and that they may be permanently eliminated at a cost which is but a small fraction of the damage occasioned during a single year, has been abundantly proved by the extensive work already accomplished in campaigns conducted by the Biological Survey in cooperation with State and county organizations.

COMMUNITY COOPERATION ESSENTIAL.

The fact has been recognized for many years that community cooperation is essential to the effective control of rodents which feed upon agricultural crops and migrate or wander from place to place in search of food and shelter. During the last four years plans have been conceived and put into operation which have effected the required cooperation of many thousands of farmers and have resulted in practical elimination of rodent pests over millions of acres of valuable agricultural land, attended by an enormous. direct saving and followed by increase in crops produced. The eagerness with which farmers have availed themselves of the opportunity to join in concerted movements to obtain relief from these pests, where the effectiveness of modern poisoning methods has been demonstrated, is most significant and gratifying, while the returns in increased crop yields upon the amount of labor and money invested in the community campaigns have exceeded all expectation. A successful fight against rodent pests requires that all local, State, and National agencies concerned be brought into harmonious and effective cooperation and that methods of proved efficiency be used.

COOPERATIVE CAMPAIGNS EXTERMINATING GROUND SQUIRRELS IN NORTH DAKOTA.

In the great grain-producing areas of North Dakota there has been developed the most extensive and thoroughly organized campaign, with a comprehensive plan of State-wide eradication of rodent pests, that has yet been witnessed.

This campaign was organized under a cooperative project agreement between the Bureau of Biological Survey and the

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States Relations Service of the United States Department of Agriculture and the North Dakota Agricultural Experiment Station and Extension Service, including the county-agent organization. With commendable foresight the State legislature provided a revolving fund, available for use in procuring and maintaining the required stock of poison supplies. State enactments also authorized county commissioners upon petition of resident landowners to provide funds and to enforce the destruction of prairie-dogs, ground squirrels, pocket gophers, and certain other rodents which were declared a nuisance.

The initial campaign was launched against the Richardson ground squirrel, commonly known locally as "gopher." This animal each year caused enormous losses of grain, despite large sums which were being expended in unavailing efforts to combat it. Farmers were so familiar with these losses that little effort was required to convince them of the importance of eradicating this pest. So many kinds of poison preparation had been tried by them at great expense and with unsatisfactory results, however, that they were skeptical about the practicability of all such means applied to field conditions.

The Biological Survey and the North Dakota Agricultural Experiment Station had planned and conducted an extended series of experiments with many kinds of poisons and baits to determine a method which would be effective and economical under the usual farm practice. Such a poison was devised and tested thoroughly at many points within the range of this ground squirrel and was recommended for use. Wide publicity was given the work by publications, farmers' meetings, and field demonstrations throughout the infested portions of the State. The demonstrations, affording, as they did, ocular evidence in the form of scores of dead ground squirrels, were so convincing that skepticism gave way to the greatest enthusiasm and willingness to join in a concerted organized movement.

Further evidence that the method offered a practical solution of the problem of eradicating these rodents was afforded by a field party of the Biological Survey operating with poison on the Fort Totten Indian Reservation near Devils Lake, where the ground squirrels were being practically



PHOTO FROM N. DAK. AGR. COLLEGE

FIG. 1.—DEMONSTRATING THE PREPARATION OF POISONED GRAIN.

Strychnin paste is mixed with oats or other grain in a box or on a smooth floor by means of a shovel.



PHOTO FROM N. DAK. AGR. COLLEGE.

FIG. 2.—DISTRIBUTING PREPARED GRAIN TO FARMERS.

The poisoned grain is placed in sacks plainly labeled to show the character and the purpose of the contents before being distributed to cooperating farmers.

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PHOTO FROM N. DAK. AGR. COLLEGE.

FIG. 1.-A "POISON SQUAD" AT WORK.

The men engaged in distributing poison to exterminate ground squirrels form in line and zigzag back and forth to meet one another as they move across a field in search of burrows.



PHOTO FROM N. DAK. AGR. COLLEGE.

FIG. 2.—RICHARDSON GROUND SQUIRRELS KILLED NEAR BURROW BY POISONED OATS.

The squirrels die in a few minutes after taking the poisoned grain into their cheek pouches.



PHOTO FROM N. DAK. AGR. COLLEGE.

FIG. 1.—A FEW OF THE MILLIONS OF GROUND SQUIRRELS KILLED IN THE NORTH DAKOTA CAMPAIGNS.

Three species are shown, the striped or thirteen-lined, the short-tailed Richardson, and the bushy-tailed Franklin ground squirrels.



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FIG. 2.—ONE DAY'S KILL OF PRAIRIE-DOGS IN ARIZONA.

Sixteen hundred and forty-one dead prairie-dogs were collected from 320 acres which had been treated the day before by one man. Eighty quarts of poisoned rolled barley were used, the total cost, including labor, being \$9.79. Only a part of the prairie-dogs poisoned are shown, as a large proportion of them die in the burrows.

exterminated upon thousands of acres. Over 98 per cent of the animals have now been killed by the first application of the poison.

The support of county commissioners and towaship supervisors was enlisted in several counties where it was desirable to undertake the control of native rodents, and funds were provided by them to purchase poison supplies in large quantity, thus obtaining much more favorable price quotations. Experts in rodent control detailed by the Biological Survey, aided by county agricultural agents, interested and organized the farming communities. Entire counties were organized in this systematic voluntary warfare upon the rodents, using the township as a convenient working unit. Poisoned grain was prepared in quantity, placed in plainly marked containers, and distributed to farmers, who then applied it according to directions about the ground-squirrel burrows upon their farms. More than 5,000,000 acres were treated with poison in 1916.

During the spring of 1917 more than 16,000 farmers in North Dakota joined in this movement. The ground squirrels were poisoned on 4,500,000 acres, resulting in a practical elimination of the pest in the areas treated and a saving in the year's crop of more than \$1,000,000. Including hire of labor to distribute the poison, the cost averages less than 5 cents per acre under North Dakota conditions, and where landowners perform the labor the actual cash outlay per acre is materially reduced. As a small amount of follow-up work serves to exterminate the animals entirely and thus to free the land permanently from their depredations, the increased production becomes an annually recurring one, effected at a total cost much less than the loss formerly experienced during the single year.

The continuance of this campaign, which is planned progressively to cover the entire infested portion of the State, will at the present rate of progress practically exterminate this destructive pest from North Dakota in about five years. The achievement in this systematic campaign marks a distinct advance in procedure for the control of rodent pests in agricultural regions. It has conclusively demonstrated the possibility, when local, State, and Federal agencies cooperate heartily in meeting a real agricultural need, of

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effecting the organization of farmers on the scale required for a practical coping with or complete elimination of some of the rodents which are most destructive of crops over extensive areas.

GROUND-SQUIRREL CAMPAIGNS PROMISING RELIEF IN OTHER STATES.

More recently, in response to bitter complaints and urgent requests for assistance from farmers, campaigns have been undertaken against ground squirrels in Montana, Idaho, and Oregon under plans of cooperation essentially the same as those employed in North Dakota. In these States the organization has centered in farm bureaus and pest clubs, which, under the stimulus and guidance of experts from the Biological Survey and county agricultural agents, have distributed many tons of poisoned grain. This was prepared in accordance with methods which have been proved by extensive investigations and field operations of the Biological Survey most effective and economical for the various species and seasons. In some instances county commissioners provided the funds necessary to obtain the supply of poison, and this was distributed free to farmers who participated in the campaign. In other cases funds were advanced to purchase in quantity the essential poison ingredients. were then prepared and sold to the cooperating farmers at cost, effecting a considerable saving in price, in addition to furnishing a supply of poison of standard strength and known efficacy against the particular species of rodent involved.

Where it has been impracticable for county commissioners to advance funds for the purpose, farm bureaus and pest clubs have pooled their orders so as to avail themselves of the advantage of the reduced price. The increase in crop production resulting from the extermination of these pests is so direct and obvious that the vigorous and enlarged prosecution of these campaigns is assured.

The initial steps have also been taken in Nevada and California to place the work of ground-squirrel control upon an organized cooperative basis.

COOPERATION EFFECTIVE AGAINST PRAIRIE-DOGS.

Prairie-dogs also, which greatly reduce the carrying capacity of the pasture ranges of the West and lay waste the grain and vegetable crops of the farmers, are giving way before the systematic poisoning campaigns organized to eradicate them. The extermination of these animals upon large areas of national forest and other public land in Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming, South Dakota, and Oklahoma by field parties of the Biological Survey showed conclusively that these foes of the agriculturist can be effectually and economically exterminated by properly directed Their ravages have been so severe as not only to cause a marked reduction in the products that could have been harvested from the acreage planted, but also to discourage settlement and in many cases actually to drive out settlers who were not able to maintain themselves in the face of such depredations.

Observing the results obtained by "poisoning parties" of the department upon public land, ranchmen and farmers have petitioned urgently for assistance. The pressing need for increasing food-crop and live-stock production emphasized the importance of eliminating this direct and preventable source of loss. Poisoning parties upon Government land were stationed where the work would be of the greatest possible value, by increasing the live-stock carrying capacity of the Government ranges, and would protect the forage and crops of ranchmen and farmers from destruction by prairiedogs coming from the Government lands. At the same time an active campaign of demonstrations was undertaken in cooperation with the State extension services in Arizona and New Mexico to promote extermination of these pests on privately owned agricultural and grazing lands. This resulted in the planting to crops of considerable areas which would have been left uncultivated but for the successful extermination of the prairie-dogs and in the saving of important vields of wheat, oats, corn, potatoes, beans, and alfalfa from destruction by them.

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JACK RABBITS DESTROYED BY THOUSANDS.

Satisfactory progress was made also in the campaigns undertaken against jack rabbits in California, Oregon, Nevada, Idaho, and Utah. These animals at certain seasons congregate in large numbers upon wheat, oats, rye, barley, and alfalfa fields, often completely devastating them, besides destroying great quantities of alfalfa hay in the stack. A farmer in Oregon writes, "Jack rabbits are so bad they destrov all our grain. If we can not obtain some help to get rid of these pests, we will have to do as other settlers are compelled to do, leave." This statement is characteristic of expressions from farmers throughout the regions where these animals occur in destructive abundance. The farmers' clubs organized for systematic poisoning of these pests in Crook County, Oreg., succeeded in destroying 59:000 during the winter of 1916-17, making a total of at least 134,000 jack rabbits killed in this county alone since the campaigns there were first undertaken. Many thousands, of these animals have been destroyed in campaigns at a cost of less than onetenth of a cent each. To the effectiveness of this work the saving of succeeding crops is largely attributed.

AN INSTANCE OF SUCCESS AGAINST GROUND SQUIRRELS.

The following statement is typical of the great number of expressions of approval received from farmers and orchardists who have used the Government poisoning methods in organized campaigns:

A hill near my house has been infested by these "ground diggers" since the year one, I should judge, and for the last three years they have carried off most of the fruit from my orchard adjoining, in spite of all the poisoning and smoking I could do. To-day I don't believe there is a live squirrel in the hill, and this with only two applications of the poisoned grain recommended by the Department of Agriculture. A large percentage of them must have died in the holes, as I found comparatively few on the surface. By thorough cooperation and perseverance I believe this pest can be practically exterminated and at small cost. Let this good work go on. If there is anything else in the making that is only half as good, let the farmer have the benefit of it at the earliest possible moment; he needs it, and our country needs it.

THOROUGH COOPERATION AND WISE DIRECTION ESSENTIAL TO SUCCESS.

Losses due to the depredations of rodent pests have too long been considered inevitable and uncontrollable. With modern improved methods of poisoning and systematic organization and prosecution of cooperative campaigns this heavy drain upon production need no longer be tolerated by progressive communities. The details of organization must vary somewhat according to the requirements for the particular animal pest involved and the conditions prevailing in the community where the work is undertaken.

As suggested by the campaigns which already have been conducted effectively, the more important features essential to ultimate success are: (1) Cooperation of all agencies involved, including farmers, local organizations, county, State, and Federal officials; (2) leadership trained and experienced in methods of rodent control and in organization; (3) a unit plan to systematize activities and cover a sufficiently large territory to prevent reinfestation; (4) financial support to procure supplies in large quantities; and (5) legal provision for the extermination of pests upon neglected areas.

Plans for the campaigns against the animals should be laid sufficiently in advance of the season favorable for beginning field operations to effect preliminary arrangements and procure necessary supplies. The need should be foreseen and the work of extermination undertaken at a time when the animals will take poison most readily and previous to the time they usually make their attacks upon growing crops. When an abundance of succulent food is available poisoning is more difficult, and when damage to a crop becomes apparent it is usually too late to develop the organization required for obtaining the most effective and lasting results. With due foresight, proper organization, and a direction of campaigns by men trained and experienced in approved methods, success in the eradication of noxious rodents is practically assured.

THE HOUSE RAT: THE MOST DESTRUCTIVE ANIMAL IN THE WORLD.

By David E. Lantz,

Assistant Biologist, Bureau of Biological Survey.

THE RAT A WORLD-WIDE MENACE.

A SINGLE RAT does far less harm in a year than one of the larger mammals, such as a lion, tiger, or wolf; but the large mammals of prey are comparatively few in number, while rats are exceedingly abundant. North America or any other continent has probably as many rats as people—possibly two or three times as many. The destruction wrought by this vast horde of rodents is far greater than that wrought by lions, tigers, wolves, and all other noxious mammals together.

Injurious insects are enormously destructive to crops. Probably their combined ravages inflict greater economic losses than do those of rats; but no one kind of insect destroys as much. The harm done by any species of insect is usually confined to certain geographic limits, rarely extending over large parts of a continent; that done by the rat extends over the whole world. Oceans fail to limit its activities.

The rat's destructiveness is not confined to crops and property; it menaces human life as well. This rodent is responsible for more deaths among human beings than all the wars of history. Not all the fatal epidemics of the past were bubonic plague, but enough of them have been so identified to show that almost every century of the Christian era has had at least one great pandemic of this scourge which destroyed millions of the world's population. The great plague of London, which killed more than half the inhabitants that did not flee from the city, was by no means the worst outbreak recorded. The plague called "black death" devastated Europe for 50 years of the fourteenth century, destroying two-thirds to three-fourths of the population of large terri-

tories and one-fourth of all the people, or about 25,000,000 persons. Since 1896 plague has carried away nearly 9,000,000 of the population of India alone. The disease is still intrenched in Asia, Africa, Australia, and South America, and cases of it have occurred in Europe and North America.

Through the fleas that infest them, rats are almost wholly responsible for the perpetuation and transmission of bubonic plague, and it has been proved also that rats are active, although not exclusive, agents in spreading pneumonic plague. Only the prompt measures taken by the United States Public Health Service against these animals prevented disastrous epidemics of plague in San Francisco, Seattle; and Hawaii in 1909, in Porto Rico in 1912, and in New Orleans in 1914.

The entire rôle of the rat in transmitting diseases to man is not fully understood. Septic pneumonia and epidemic jaundice in man have been traced to the rodent, and it is known to perpetuate trichinæ in the pig. It is suspected of being a carrier of infantile paralysis, and it undoubtedly carries many kinds of infectious germs from its haunts of filth, leaving them upon human food.

The economic loss due to rats is astounding. No extensive or exact statistics on the subject are available, but surveys of conditions existing in a few of the older cities of the United States show that losses due to rate are almost in exact ratio to the populations. In rural districts the losses are much greater in proportion to inhabitants than in cities. Assuming that there are in the United States only as many rats as people, and that each rat in a year destroys property valued at \$2, the total yearly damage is about \$200,000,000. To this must be added the expense of fighting rats, including the large sums paid for traps and poisons, the keep of dogs and cats, and the labor involved. In addition, the loss of human efficiency due to diseases disseminated by the rat should be considered. It is hardly thinkable that a civilized people should rest supinely under such conditions and let this evil continue, particularly when it is known that numberless human lives are in jeopardy. Think of the waste involved in a loss of \$200,000,000 a year! The constant

¹Estimates of annual rat damage in foreign countries made previous to the present war were: United Kingdom, \$73,000,000; France, \$38,500,000; Germany, \$47,640,000; Denmark, \$3,000,000.

labor of an army of more than 200,000 men is required to produce the materials eaten and destroyed by rats. If half this loss were represented by grain destroyed, it would take about 5,000,000 acres to produce it.

Man has been fighting the rat for centuries and has made little progress. The rodents are intrenched in fortresses of man's own building. If they are driven out or overcome for a time, others soon swarm from neighboring premises, and the battle has to begin anew. Defeats have been due not so much to lack of proper methods as to neglect of precautions and an absence of concerted action. The work has been made abortive by providing continued subsistence for the rodents and by failing to destroy their intrenchments. When once they are deprived of these advantages and the campaign against them is organized on lines of intelligent cooperation a large measure of success will be achieved.

Civilization and science have by no means spoken their last word about the means of combating this greatest plague of the human race. A building can be made rat-proof; why not a farmstead, a street, a village, a city, or a seaport! If rats can not be exterminated, they at least can be repressed in this country, and at the same time effective barriers can be erected against the landing of fresh hordes. Up to the present time, however, few efforts have been made to find out the way or even to apply properly the means already at command. It is high time to begin.

THREE KINDS OF HOUSE RATS.

Three kinds of house rats occur in the United States, none native, but all migrants from the Old World. Most formidable and most widely distributed is the brown rat, known also as gray, barn, wharf, sewer, or Norway rat. This rat is the worst of our rodent pests. It made its appearance in America shortly before the Revolution. It may be recognized by its large size, robust form, blunt head, short ears, and the fact that its tail does not exceed the combined length of its body and head. It is a burrowing species, commonly nesting in the ground, and is found throughout the country, except possibly in Wyoming and Montana.

¹ Rattus norvegicus.

The brown rat owes its dominance to its ferocity, its great fecundity, and its ability to adapt itself to nearly all conditions. With abundant food it breeds from six to ten times a year and produces (in the middle part of the United States) an average of about 10 young to the litter. Young females breed when three or four months old. The possibilities of such reproduction are a menace to the human race. At the maximum rate of increase and without check, in a few years the rats in the world would consume all vegetable and animal products, and the earth would become a lifeless waste.

The black rat' arrived from Europe soon after the settlement of the Atlantic coast. It has disappeared from most parts of the country, but it persists in a few remote localities in the North, is more common southward, and a few occasionally land at most of our seaports. This rat seldom burrows in the ground, but lives in walls of houses and between floors and ceilings. It is slender and not able to cope with the more robust and fiercer brown rat. It may be recognized by its smaller size, its pointed muzzle, its sooty color, and the fact that its tail is longer than the head and body.

A third form is the roof rat, or Alexandrian rat,² probably a southern race of the black rat. It resembles the black rat in every particular except in its color, which is nearly like that of the brown rat, but more yellowish on the underparts. It is common throughout the Southern States and has been able to maintain itself against the brown rat, probably because of its habit of living and nesting in trees. Records of the occurrence of the brown, black, and roof rats in the same locality in the South are not infrequent.

The black rat and the roof rat are less prolific than the brown rat. While they probably breed as often, they produce smaller litters. The period of gestation—about 21 days—is the same for the three forms.

BARRING RATS FROM SHELTER AND FOOD ON THE FARM.

Of all people the farmer has most reason for detesting the rat. The majority of farms present ideal conditions for this rodent and consequently are badly infested. First comes the item of shelter. Many farm dwellings are old

¹ Rattus rattus rattus.

² Rattus rattus alexandrinus.

buildings with shallow foundations laid in lime mortar; if there is a cellar, it probably has an earthen floor or a wooden one resting on sills in contact with the ground. The barns were built solely to shelter live stock, implements, and crops from inclement weather, and with no thought of excluding rodents. Decayed and almost abandoned sheds and outbuildings are allowed to remain long after their usefulness has passed. Wood and lumber piles often literally encumber the ground. Stone fences or walls of open construction inclose many fields, orchards, or wood lots. All such surroundings are favorable for rat concealment.

Besides shelter, the farm offers a great variety and abundance of rat food. Here are grains always accessible in field, shock, stack, mow, crib, granary, and bin. Here grow luscious fruits and succulent vegetables. Here are rich eggs and toothsome young poultry, all tempting to the rat. Here, too, are scattered abundant waste offerings from feed troughs of horses, cattle, swine, and poultry. Food and shelter everywhere! Is it surprising that rats love the farm and stay on it?

The migrations of rats from one locality to another are of special interest. After a series of years in which the pests are comparatively scarce in a rural neighborhood they suddenly become abundant and exceedingly destructive over large areas. Such invasions are frequently reported and hard to understand. Probably food is the chief factor involved. Rats migrate from places where food is scarce to places where it is plentiful; and abundant food in the new locality causes abnormal reproduction, the effect of which in a short time is that of a sudden invasion of a vast horde of rats.

Another movement of rats is local and seasonal in its occurrence. An exodus of the animals from cities and villages to river banks and farmsteads in the surrounding country takes place every spring and is followed by a return migration each autumn. This phenomenon has been observed almost everywhere. It explains why rats are more abundant in towns during the cold season, while in the country they occur in largest numbers during the summer months.

What measures may the farmer adopt to free his premises of rats and insure himself against loss from their depredations? The question is important and the suggested task is doubly difficult when he undertakes to accomplish it by his own efforts. He may clean up his premises and destroy all the rats found there, but as long as his neighbors neglect to take similar precautions his home will be constantly subject to fresh invasions and his work must be repeated. All rodent destruction is properly the business of the community and must be so recognized before substantial progress can be made. As long, however, as community action is delayed, the farmer must continue his individual efforts or suffer serious losses of property.

The measures needed for eliminating rats from the farm include destroying their hiding and nesting places, keeping food from them, killing them, and organizing the entire community for concerted action against them.

RAT HARBORS DESTROYED BY RAT-PROOFING FARM BUILDINGS.

Rat harbors should be demolished everywhere. On the farm first attention is needed to things that are of no further use, as dilapidated buildings, lumber and trash piles, open stone walls, and the like. These should all be removed and the premises cleaned up. Buildings that are still useful may then be made rat-proof, often at slight expense. Small structures should be raised on posts at least 18 inches above the ground, with the space beneath left entirely open. If such buildings are used for storing grain or provisions they may be further protected by thin sheet metal or wire netting tacked to surfaces that might be gnawed from the top of a post or other point where the animals could get a feethold. A horizontal belt of tin, 12 inches wide, nailed on the outside of a crib 3 feet above the ground, is an effectual barrier against a climbing rat.

Rat-proofing by elevation has the advantages of cheapness and the fact that it may be applied to a great variety of structures. In the South, dwelling houses are often so treated; but in a colder climate, foundation walls are needed, either of concrete or of stone laid in concrete.

Many cellars may be made rat-proof by a floor of concrete. Holes in the wall around water or sewer pipes should be filled with concrete to the full width of the wall. Cellar windows should be screened with heavy wire netting of

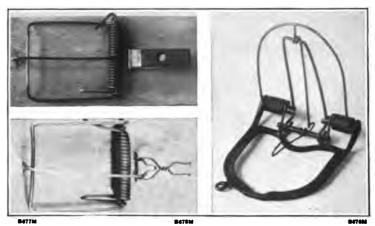


FIG. 1.—TYPES OF GOOD GUILLOTINE TRAPS. FOR USE IN CATCHING RATS.

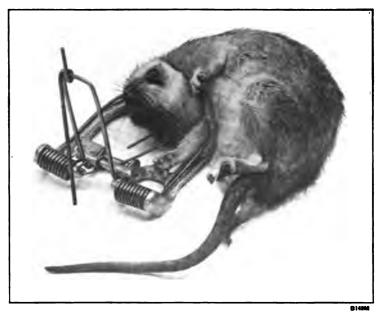


FIG. 2.—RAT CAUGHT IN GUILLOTINE TRAP.
Good traps well placed and set will kill many rats.



BRITH-PHOTO FROM U. S. PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE.

FIG. 1.—RAT NESTS UNDER PLANKED-OVER BACK YARD.

Rats flourish in such harbors.



FIG. 2.—RAT-PROOFING BY CONCRETE SIDE WALL.

Under the supervision of officers of the U. S. Public Health Service many places in New Orleans were thus made rat-proof in 1914.



BSI2M-PHOTO FROM U. S. PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE

FIG. 1.—ERADICATING PLAGUE RATS.

Twenty-one plague rats were found under and about this Chinese restaurant in New Orleans, demolished in 1914.



PHOTO FROM U. S. PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE.

FIG. 2.—BUILDING OUT THE PLAGUE RATS.

Sanitary rat-proof building erected on site of the demolished Chinese restaurant shown

in figure 1.

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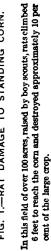
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FIG. 2.—THREE CORNSTALKS FROM SAME FIELD.

Rats ate the tender grains, leaving bare cobe for the youthful farmers.

FIG. 1.—RAT DAMAGE TO STANDING CORN.



one-fourth-inch mesh (mice can go through one-half-inch square holes).

Meat houses must have careful attention or they will be invaded by rats, with serious destruction of smoked meats. In cases where it is impracticable to rat-proof walls and foundation, the meat may be protected in wire cages or the room may be lined with wire netting of one-fourth-inch mesh.

FOOD KEPT FROM RATS BY VARIOUS DEVICES.

Keeping food from rats is an important measure, because well-fed rats breed often and have many young at a time; also, because the presence of abundant food makes the work of trapping or poisoning the animals extremely difficult. While rat-proof construction of buildings is the best means of protecting food, a variety of other devices may prove helpful. Provisions, flour, seed grain, and the like may be kept in wire-covered cages or boxes, safe from both rats and mice. By simply plastering a stone or brick wall in a cellar or compartment it may be made too smooth for rats to climb. Rats may be kept from traversing the top of a cellar wall by a tin barrier closing the space between two joists that rest on the wall. Provisions may be kept on shelves suspended from the cellar ceiling. Not only grains and stored provisions, but waste food also, should be protected from the rodents. All garbage from the kitchen should be placed in well-covered metal containers and promptly fed to swine or burned. The fly and rat nuisances are as dangerous in the country as in cities.

TRAPS, DOGS, CATS, AND POISONS TO DESTROY RATS.

No opportunity to kill rats should be neglected on the farm. Traps, dogs, cats, and poisons may be useful. The first need is traps and a knowledge of how to use them. The most reliable traps for general use are the inexpensive snap, or guillotine, traps. Many efficient kinds are on the market, but the cheaper ones are rarely to be recommended for durability. Those that have sheet-metal bases are not desirable, as rats fear and avoid them. Snap traps should be set so that they will spring at a slight touch. They may be placed in rat runs, at rat burrows, behind boards leaned

against the wall, and in a great variety of other favorable places. Dry oatmeal (rolled oats) is recommended as a bait for both rats and mice. Place a few grains on the trigger pan or under the trigger wire, with a few grains near the trap.

Trapping rats is an art which may be learned by practice. A common mistake is to set one or two traps where a dozen are needed. On a badly infested farmstead 40 or 50 snap traps can be used to advantage. The kind of bait should be suited to the circumstances. Great success should not be expected with the oatmeal where other grains are present. Meat, fish, smoked sausage, toasted cheese, fried bacon, butter, peanuts, and pumpkin, melon, or sunflower seeds are good to use as a change from oatmeal.

The wire-cage trap, if substantially made, is useful on the farm. Coarse bait is required, and may be hung from the top of the trap by a light wire. Set the trap on a floor or on a board, lay a short board on top, and cover the whole with an old cloth or gunny sack, leaving only the trap entrance uncovered. The trap may be baited and left open for a night or two until rats learn to feed inside, after which a good catch may be expected. An excellent plan for using the cage trap is to bore a hole two or three inches in diameter at proper height in the door of granary or feed room. The hole may be covered with a metal slide when the trap is not in use. Set the trap inside the granary with its entrance fitted to the hole and cover and bait in the usual manner; any rat entering the granary is caught. The same plan is applicable to rat holes in other situations, and it has been used effectively between connecting rooms of cold storage warehouses.

The small breeds of dogs, especially terriers, are valuable as rat killers on the farm. They are easily trained and are always available when needed. Wherever rats are routed from nests or harbors these dogs are eager for the fray. When shocked or stacked grain is moved or threshed they kill many rats. Sometimes a barrier, or fence, of light boards is placed about a stack, and dogs inside get all the rodents dislodged. In this way 500 or 600 rats have been destroyed from a single stack.

Cats are useful about farm buildings mainly because they kill mice. Sometimes they hunt and destroy rats, but a cat that will kill an adult rat is rare. The chief objection to cats on a farm is their persistent destruction of song birds. A good cat is valuable when her killing propensities can be confined to rodent pests, but the majority of felines are worthless or actually injurious on the farm.

Great caution should always be observed in the use of poisons, but there are situations on the farm in which poisons may be used safely and effectively. In the open fields poisoned grain may be scattered near rat burrows. In the poultry yard poisons may be exposed for rats inside darkened boxes. A small, rather shallow box containing the baits is set on the ground with a larger box inverted over it. A hole in the larger box will admit the rat to the food, while chickens will be safe. Strychnin is the safest poison to use where poultry run, because hens are immune to small quantities of this poison. The same is true of quails, grouse, pheasants, and turkeys.

The early threshing of grain, which prevents shocks and stacks from remaining long as harbors and breeding places for rats, is a measure that will avoid much loss of grain now experienced in America.

RURAL RAT CLUBS ACCOUNT FOR MANY RATS.

In any rural community badly infested with rats, it is a good plan for farmers to form rat clubs and offer prizes for destroying the rodents. The younger members of the community as well as adults should be allowed to compete and the prizes should be awarded periodically, as once a month. A first, second, and third prize are suggested for those who bring in the greatest number of rat tails. Specific rules governing the contests should be made at the start, and instruction as to proper methods of trapping or otherwise killing rats should be a part of the program for each meeting of the club. Prizes may be provided by private donation or even by assessment of members. The plan gives better satisfaction than a system of straight rewards, because it arouses more enthusiasm and costs less. A rat and sparrow club in England in three seasons secured the destruction of 16,000 rats and 28,000 sparrows by an expenditure of less than \$30 in prize money. Had ordinary bounties been paid, the same work would have cost \$1,000 or \$1.200.

COOPERATION NEEDED TO DESTROY RATS IN VILLAGES.

In the matter of rat infestation, small towns are intermediate between farm and city. They show a marked increase of rodents in winter and a decrease when spring opens. Yet the outlying parts of a village are peculiarly subject to losses of poultry during the summer. Pigeon lofts, also, in small towns are subject to raids by rats, and the toll of eggs and young squabs is often heavy. Rats can climb fine-meshed netting and gain entrance to the pigeon yard at the top where the birds themselves enter.

The measures recommended for repressing rats on farms will apply to villages, but cooperation of citizens to destroy the rodents will usually be more readily obtained. Often the small town has a civic club which could take up rat work whenever its importance is presented. It requires only an intelligent and persistent leader to set the machinery for rat repression in motion. The leader should provide for the instruction of the community as to best methods of trapping, sanitation, rat-proofing buildings, and other measures needed to discourage the rodent. An appeal to civic pride will often bring excellent results in cleaning up premises and in replacing wooden walks or porches, dilapidated buildings, or other harbors for rats.

BUILDING REGULATIONS NEEDED IN CITIES.

The city is the great stronghold of the rat, its permanent refuge, and its last line of defense. The rodent might be destroyed in all rural districts and villages, but if not routed in the cities the whole country would soon be repopulated with rats from these centers of infestation. Distance does not limit the rat's wanderings. This fact is aptly illustrated by the manner in which the brown rat spread in the United States. It appeared first in the larger seaports, whence it gradually reached the inland towns along the larger streams. But when railroads were built they facilitated its distribution to distant cities and later to intervening towns along

these highways of commerce. While rats seem to prefer water transportation, they are not averse to traveling by rail. A few years ago crates of chinaware were unpacked in Baltimore and in the straw packing were found mature black rats that evidently had been brought all the way from Canton, China—first by ship to San Francisco and thence by rail to their destination.

The institutions peculiar to large cities favor the rat and account for its abundance. The old wooden wharves, the bricked sewers, the extensive lumber yards, the ancient factories, the grain elevators, the markets, and many other features attract and harbor the rodents. As a rule, the older the city the more rats are to be found in it; but even in parts rebuilt after large fires and from which one would think modern construction would have excluded the animals they are still to be found, though less abundant. Many large buildings, rat-proof as to walls and foundations, have become infested with rodents through carelessness or oversight of owners or occupants, and the animals are intrenched behind fixtures or merchandise. Fortunately it is possible to dislodge and rout them from these hiding places.

Losses from rats in cities are enormous. In 1908 the Biological Survey made a careful study of rat infestations in two cities, Washington and Baltimore, with the result that actual losses of produce and other property amounting annually to \$400,000 and \$700,000, respectively, were revealed. These sums are nearly in ratio to the populations. The Women's Municipal League of Boston recently announced that losses from rats in that city amounted to \$1,350,000 each year. Losses in Pittsburgh, Pa., have been estimated at over \$1,000,000 a year. No doubt present values of produce would greatly increase these estimates.

The repression of rats in cities is often hindered by objections to proposed building reforms. Almost an entire block of city dwellings was tenantless for nearly a year because of rat infestation and the refusal of the owners to make necessary repairs to exclude the rodents. In one instance the loss of rents on a single block must have been nearly \$10,000. Commission merchants, renting property in a good location, have been known to endure with seeming patience the loss of nearly a hundred dollars each month from rat depreda-

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tions, while the property owners not only refused to make repairs but advanced the rents 25 per cent.

The routing of rats from cities has become both an economic and a sanitary necessity. Facing the possibility of an epidemic of bubonic or pneumonic plague and the enormous expenditures necessitated by such an outbreak, it is the part of wisdom for any city to protect itself from the calamity. It is not for the individual householder or citizen to decide whether he will interest himself in the subject. It is a matter for municipal legislation, and it is the duty of the citizen to support the ordinances and to cooperate with the authorities to the best of his ability in order that the city may be a clean and safe place in which to live.

The measures that should be adopted to rid cities of rats include:

First, the requirement that all buildings to be erected shall be made rat-proof under a rigid system of inspection. This requirement probably would add an average of less than 2 per cent to the cost of construction, but the advantages would be out of all proportion to the added cost.

Second, the requirement that all existing buildings with rat-proof walls and foundations be made really rat-proof by closing or screening every opening through which rats might enter. This is a large program, and its enforcement will require skill as well as intelligent supervision. Often it is a puzzle to know how rats gain entrance to a building. A large department store occupying a supposedly rat-proof structure became infested with rats, and only after weeks of investigation was it learned that, to obtain ventilation on summer nights, a watchman had been in the habit of opening a side door without putting up a barrier against rats. A sheet-metal barrier 2 or 3 feet high with ends fitted to the casings at the sides of the doorway would have kept the rats out.

Third, voluntary application of rat-proofing repairs to all buildings that need them. Often only a slight modification of some feature is necessary, as the addition of gratings or screens to basement windows, the closing with concrete of a hole in a wall, or the concreting of a cellar floor. Frequently, however, buildings will need elevation and concrete foundations to make them impervious to rats. By the addition of a concrete side extension, an ordinary wall may be made ratproof.

Besides the above requirements as to buildings, the measures recommended for eradicating rat harbors on the farm, and for destroying rats there, apply in the main to the city. Dogs of the better breeds, or cats, may be used to advantage to destroy rats in warehouses, factories, or stables, but cleanliness and sanitary reasons forbid their use in stores where provisions are kept for sale.

Fewer suitable situations for the use of poison exist in the city than in the country, and traps become the main reliance for killing rats. Rat viruses are not recommended, since they are much more expensive and more uncertain as to results than poisons. The kinds of traps adapted to city use and the methods of using them are the same as for the country.

Various civic organizations, including commercial clubs, women's municipal leagues, and boards of health, should be deeply interested in rat repression for the cities. One of the most important factors is publicity. All citizens need to be educated concerning the rat's menace to health and material prosperity, and much of the success of campaigns for eradicating the pest will depend upon close cooperation between press and people. The advantages of display posters in public places have been amply proved in rat campaigns in a number of the larger cities.

SPECIAL PRECAUTIONS REQUIRED IN SEAPORTS.

Foreign commerce makes seaports peculiarly liable to the introduction of infectious diseases, especially bubonic plague. The sanitary officers of ports therefore are responsible to some extent not only for the local health, but for the health of the entire Nation. Within the last few years bubonic plague has been introduced at San Francisco, Seattle, and New Orleans, as well as at seaports of Hawaii and Porto Rico. The subsequent costly campaigns against rats under direction of the United States Public Health Service are matters of history.

Bubonic plague is communicated to man by the bite of fleas that infest rats and a few other mammals, such as marmots and ground squirrels. As only the rat travels from country to country it is the only animal that imports plague. Pneumonic plague is carried in the same way, but this disease is infectious and may also be communicated directly from man to man.

Adequate preventive measures at all seaports probably would render unnecessary the heavy expenditures involved in fighting plague after its introduction. Rats take plague only from fleas of rats that have come from places where plague exists—that is, the carrying rats generally arrive on shipboard. If, therefore, they can be prevented from landing, there will be little danger of introduction of plague.

But rats carry diseases other than plague, and seaports have the same economic losses from rats that worry other cities. The port has the added duty of protecting itself from foreign rats. Besides the usual measures against rats in cities, provision should be made for the fumigation of all vessels arriving from foreign ports and the frequent fumigation of ships engaged in trade along the coast or on inland waters. Vessels at docks should be required to place rat guards on all hawsers, and should be "breasted off" the dock by spars furnished with rat guards. This matter is so important to public health as to warrant Federal legislation prescribing port regulations on the subject.

NATURAL ENEMIES OF RATS TO BE ENCOURAGED.

The natural enemies of rats and mice include, besides such domestic animals as the dog, cat, and ferret, nearly all the predatory mammals and birds of prey, as well as snakes, storks, herons, and some other water birds. The continuous warfare kept up by these wild forces combined is, under natural conditions, a far more effective check on rodents than the work hitherto accomplished by man. In recent years, however, the animals that prey upon rodents have become very scarce, while rodents themselves have increased to such numbers that they damage crops severely. Hawks, owls, skunks, weasels, and snakes are among the beneficial animals that have been nearly exterminated through prejudice and ignorance.

All the hawks, owls, and weasels in the country combined do not destroy one-sixth as much poultry or game as the common brown rat, and many of them are efficient enemies of both rats and mice. It should be sufficient to permit the farmer or game keeper to destroy any individual animal or bird found preying on poultry or game; to give him license to kill the beneficial and the harmful alike and at any time or place is unreasonable. Nevertheless, laws in many parts of the United States not only give such license but authorize payment of rewards for the killing. The present hawk law of Ohio is an instance. As drawn and passed in 1915, it reasonably provides that townships shall pay a bounty of \$1 each on a few species of hawks that are actually injurious because the main part of their food is birds. In 1916, under this law, bounty was paid on over 20,000 hawks, probably five times as many as there could have been found in the whole State of the kinds upon which rewards were to be paid. Probably no attempts were made to identify the hawks presented for bounty. Already the unfavorable effects of this law are shown in the large number of complaints of serious damage done by rats and mice in Ohio and adjoining States.

Because they hunt at night, owls are especially efficient in destroying rats. The great horned, short-eared, long-eared, barred, and barn owls are all good ratters, and even the little screech owl occasionally gets a rat. The barn owl is the most useful of all because of its habit of living about farm buildings. It is so harmless to poultry that it has been known to take up its residence in a pigeon house and rear its young there.

POISONS USEFUL AGAINST RATS.

In most States the owner or lessee of land may legally put out poison for rodents on his own premises. Extreme caution, however, should always be taken to prevent accident. Except in grain, poisons should never be placed in open or unsheltered locations. All packages and containers of poison should be plainly marked with cautionary labels and kept out of the reach of children. Poisons are unsuited for general use in occupied dwellings, because the decaying

bodies of rats are objectionable. No poison exists that when eaten will dry up carcasses and prevent putrefaction or that may be relied upon to drive the animals from the premises to die. The brown rat when poisoned seeks its burrow, wherever located. A slow poison will usually allow it to reach this retreat, and thus is less liable than a quick poison to give unpleasant results in a dwelling. This statement does not apply to the black rat or the roof rat nor to the common mouse, which are not burrowing species, but which usually live in the walls of houses.

For poisoning rats or mice in open fields, at garbage dumps, on river banks, in warehouses, and in similar situations the following formulas are recommended:

STRYCHNIN (SULPHATE) FORMULA.—Dissolve 1 ounce of strychnin (sulphate) in a pint of boiling water. Dissolve a heaping tablespoonful of dry laundry starch in a little cold water, add it to the strychnin solution, and continue to boil for a few minutes until the starch is clear. Add a scant teaspoonful of saccharin or a cup of thick sirup to sweeten the paste and stir thoroughly. Pour this mixture while hot over 12 quarts of clean oats in a metal tub and mix until all the grain is coated. Before using let the grain stand until the coating dries. Occasional stirring will hasten the drying. Scatter the grain near rat burrows or runs.

STRYCHNIN (ALKALOID) FORMULA.—Mix thoroughly 1 ounce of powdered strychnin (alkaloid), 1 ounce of common baking soda (bicarbonate), and one-eighth ounce of powdered saccharin. Put the mixture in a tin pepperbox and sift it gradually over 30 pounds of crushed oats in a metal tub, mixing the grain constantly so that the poison will be evenly distributed. Put out the poisoned grain about rat burrows or runs, but not in piles of more than a teaspoonful.

Barium carbonate formula.—Barium carbonate for rats or mice may be fed in a dough composed of 4 parts of meal or flour to 1 part of the mineral. A more convenient bait is ordinary oatmeal (rolled oats) with about one-eighth of its bulk of barium carbonate, mixed with water enough to make a stiff dough. This may be exposed in bulk in a pan, or put out, about a teaspoonful at a place, in rat runs. Eaten in sufficient quantities, this mineral is dangerous to all animals, and caution is needed in its use.

While most salts of barium are dangerous, barium sulphate, which is sometimes sold as a substitute for the carbonate, is not poisonous to rats or other animals.

SQUILLS FORMULA.—The sea leek, or squill, is a favorite rat poison in Europe. It is rapid in its action and a very small quantity will kill a rat. The following three methods of preparing the poison are in use:

First method: Mix thoroughly 1 ounce of powdered squills with 4 ounces of strong-smelling cheese.

Second method: Cut a sea leek into slices and chop 2 parts of the leek with 3 parts of bacon into fine pieces. Mix with meal or flour enough to make all cohere. Then bake into cakes.

Third method: Chop the leek fine and mix with flour and water to make a dough; roll out flat, and dry in an oven. Pound into a fine powder. This may be used on any kind of rat bait.

RAT DAMAGE MIGHT BE REDUCED NINE-TENTHS.

To combat the rat successfully is largely a building problem. Buildings should be so constructed as to exclude the animals from shelter and food. When this is done, individual and community efforts to destroy rats will give satisfactory and lasting results. The program may be regarded by many as too expensive. Will it be too costly? What do rats cost now? If half the money now spent in feeding and fighting rats could be expended in wisely planned and wellexecuted cooperative efforts for rat repression, it would be possible within a few years nearly to rid the country of its worst animal pest, to reduce losses from its depredations by at least 90 per cent, and to free the land completely from the fear of bubonic plague.

¹ Boilla maritima.

FERTILIZERS FROM INDUSTRIAL WASTES.

By Wn. H. Ross, Scientist,
Division of Investigations of Fertilizer Resources, Bureau of Soils.

THE principal industries of the country are agriculture, mining, lumbering, fishing, and manufacturing. Products are allowed to go to waste in these industries when they have no commercial value, when they can not be recovered economically, when there is no known process of recovering them, or when it is not known that a loss is actually taking place. The last decade or two have witnessed a wonderful development in the utilization of many of these products. In some cases the discovery of new uses for certain of them has so increased their value that what was once a principal product becomes secondary in value to what was formerly a waste product. Improved operations and the utilization of certain waste materials have also made possible the profitable recovery of other products which formerly could not be prepared economically.

A use to which a larger number of waste materials is put than for any other purpose is the manufacture of fertilizers. In most industries the raw materials used must be carefully selected both with respect to composition and purity of material. The fertilizer industry, however, forms an exception to this rule, for there is a wide latitude allowed in the choice of the materials that may be employed. Some forms of combination of the fertilizing elements are preferred to others, but almost all are used. There are also no definite regulations with respect to purity beyond the requirements that the fertilizing elements must be present in available form and that excessive amounts of poisonous substances should not be present. The variations in composition of materials used in fertilizers is therefore very great, and it is this fact which enables so many by-products of the industries to find ultimate disposal in the manufacture of fertilizers.

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POTASH FROM THE HARDWOOD INDUSTRY.

A striking illustration of the change in value which a product may undergo with the development of an industry is furnished by the utilization of certain woods, as the oak and the hemlock. In the early development of the country the bark of these trees served as the only source of tannin used in the manufacture of leather. In many places the collection of bark developed into an industry of considerable importance, and occasionally the profits realized on the sale of the bark greatly exceeded that which could be obtained from the remainder of the tree. Where conditions were favorable, timber was also prepared for market; but it often happened that on stripping the bark the remaining portion of the tree was either allowed to decay or purposely destroyed in clearing the land. The practice of such wasteful methods of forestry naturally soon resulted in a marked limitation in the extent of virgin forests. This fact, taken with that of a rapid increase in population, soon greatly increased the demand for wood products. Under these conditions it was no longer profitable to leave good timber to decay. Hardwood material in particular came into great demand, and even the lowest-grade material could then be profitably utilized as a fuel for the generation of power, leaving an ash which found important application as a fertilizer or for the . preparation of potash salts.

At present the demand for wood products is much greater than the supply. In thickly settled districts, discarding, waste material in lumbering is no longer practiced. All tops of trees, slabs, edgings, and the sawdust in particular are carefully collected and used for different purposes, as when destructively distilled for the preparation of many chemical products, as alcohol, sugar, and oxalic acid. The residue in this case, as well as when the wood is used for fuel, becomes directly available for use as a potash fertilizer. No reliable figures are available for the amount of potash that is now being recovered from this source; but it has been estimated, on the basis of the lumber cut of 1915, that the total amount that is theoretically recoverable from the hardwood wastes of the country amounts to about 19,000 tons annually.

The development as thus outlined in the use of certain woods is only one of many instances that might be cited in illustration of the way in which materials formerly treated as wastes may become so extensively utilized that what was once a principal product simply becomes one of several by-products.

FERTILIZERS FROM THE PACKING-HOUSE INDUSTRY.

An industry that is now said to thrive more than any other on the utilization of waste is the preparation of meat products. The pork, beef, and mutton retailed in our stores represent only from 40 to 85 per cent of the animal on the hoof. Time was when a large part of the remaining 15 to 60 per cent was simply thrown away. At present, however, the field of usefulness of waste material has been so largely extended that practically all the profits of this industry are now derived from their successful exploitation. In no other industry has conservation been more carefully worked out, and in the up-to-date slaughterhouses of our large cities it may truthfully be said that a slaughtered animal is utilized from the tip of his nose to the last hair on the end of his tail.

The by-products obtained in the packing-house industry may be divided into two classes—the edible and the inedible. The inedible portions constitute the external covering (hair, horns, hoofs, and hides), some of the offal, and the bones. From these materials is prepared a great variety of substances, some of which have developed into enormous industries in themselves, such as the making of leather, soap, glue, and fertilizer. The last mentioned is of special interest as it represents the ultimate utilization of the waste in the packing-house industry. This is illustrated, for example, in the manufacture of such articles as buttons, combs, knife handles, and spatulas from the horns and hoofs of cattle and sheep and the hoofs of hogs. The waste resulting from the preparation of these materials and from hoofs and horns of too low grade to be used for this purpose was at one time thrown away, but it has been found that by treating such material with sulphuric acid the nitrogen which it contains becomes available as a fertilizer. Under the

trade name of processed fertilizer this waste from a waste is thus profitably disposed of. The trimmings and waste obtained in the manufacture of hair and leather goods are likewise consumed as fertilizer in the same way.

Of more importance from the point of view of fertilizer manufacture is the utilization of the bones, blood, entrails, etc. Incongruous as it may seem, each of these materials is now used in the preparation of a great many different products. Thus the bones alone furnish at least 30 different articles, but portions of each of the materials named ultimately find their way into fertilizer manufacture. In utilizing the bones in this way they may be either steamed, ground, and placed on the market under the name of bone meal, or they may be treated with sulphuric acid to make them more readily available for plant food. In the latter form they are known as acidulated bones.

The blood, entrails, and other miscellaneous material which have been rejected for other use all find ultimate disposal in what is known as tankage in the fertilizer trade. Blood tankage is simply made by cooking, pressing, and then drying. All other materials are graded and then subjected to a prolonged cooking in large tanks under steam pressure. When this is completed the fat is drawn off from the top to make tallow and grease. The solid residue in the tanks, together with that obtained after concentrating the tank water, is pressed in hydraulic presses to remove excess water and as much fatty matter as possible. On drying the different grades are then placed on the market and form the various tankages which are so valuable for their nitrogen and phosphoric-acid content in the manufacture of fertilizers.

FERTILIZERS FROM THE FISH INDUSTRY.

The oldest industry to make use of waste for fertilizing purposes is the fish industry. The custom of fertilizing crops by means of fish existed among the Indians of New England even before the arrival of white settlers in this country. It is said that for fertilizing corn one or two fish were placed in each hill. This procedure was adopted by the colonists, and at the time of a large catch the surplus fish were simply spread broadcast over the fields. In places where fish were

plentiful this disposal of an oversupply of fish has been practiced until very recent times.

It was soon observed, however, that the response first noted on liberally fertilizing with fish decreased with each successive application, and the initial good effects could be obtained again only after the soil had been allowed to stand for a time without further applications of the fish. After many suggestions had been advanced in explanation of this result, it was finally shown to be due to the deleterious action on plants of the oil in the fish. When the oil was removed by cooking and pressing the residue obtained no longer exhibited the effects previously noted and its value as a fertilizer was consequently greatly improved. A further advantage in removing the oil was furnished by the value which the oil possesses in itself for use in the industries. At present the price of crude fish oil is normally quoted at about 25 cents per gallon, which is more than sufficient to cover the cost of the extraction. It thus happens that in the utilization of fish waste the recovery of the extracted residue, or fish scrap, as it is known in the trade, often becomes subordinate to the recovery of the oil.

The principal sources of fish oil and scrap at present are nonedible fish, as the menhaden, and the refuse collected in canning factories from the heads, tails, bones, shells, intestines, etc., of edible fish. Nonedible fish furnish the largest supply of both oil and scrap. The average annual catch of menhaden for the last eight years was about 500,000,000 fish, which, with the refuse collected in canneries, produced about 60,000 tons of scrap and 85,000 barrels of oil. The largest recorded catch was in 1903, when about 1,000,000,000 fish were caught.

The composition of fish scrap varies with the nature of the material from which it is prepared. Generally speaking, it may be said to contain on an average about 8 per cent each of nitrogen and phosphoric acid. The presence in fish scrap of a comparatively high percentage of two of the essential plant foods makes it one of the most valuable of the organic fertilizers. The catch of menhaden during the last two or three years has been much below the average. The total production of fish scrap in 1916 consequently amounted to only 27,000 tons.

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FERTILIZERS FROM THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY.

Our largest manufacturing industry is the making of iron and steel. The pig iron recovered in the smelting of iron ore amounts on an average to about 25 per cent of the raw materials required. The equivalent of about 14 per cent of the raw material is driven off by volatilization in the coking of the coal; in the process of smelting, a further 40 per cent escapes from the furnaces in the form of gas, fume, and dust; and the remaining 21 per cent represents the slag discharged at the time of tapping the furnace.

In the early history of the industry little was done to utilize any of these waste materials. In fact, until the last decade the most that was done in this direction was to utilize to some extent the heat that escapes from the furnace. Within the last few years, however, a great deal of attention has been given in this industry to the utilization of waste, and it may be said that more advance has been made recently in the efficient operation of the blast furnace than has, perhaps, been accomplished in any other important industry. This development may be noted particularly in the coking of coal for blast-furnace use. In 1909, 84 per cent of the coke produced in the country was prepared in what are known as beehive ovens and the remaining 16 per cent in the more modern by-product ovens. In 1916 the output of by-product coke increased to 38.6 per cent of the total, with every prospect of a still further increase for the present year. In the beehive process the nitrogen present in the coal and all other volatile constituents are driven off by the treatment, and apart from the heat generated by the combustible constituents of the gas all represent a total loss in the process. In the by-product oven, on the other hand, there is recovered not only the nitrogen occurring in the coal but also a great number of other by-products, which find very extensive application in the manufacture of dyes, explosives, drugs, and other products. In this process the nitrogen passes off and is recovered as ammonia. By combining this with sulphuric acid there is formed a product known as ammonium sulphate, which at present is one of the most important sources of nitrogenous fertilizers in the country. The output in 1915 amounted to 249,000 tons, and in 1916, to 325,000, valued at about \$25,000,000.

The economic uses of blast-furnace slag have also been greatly developed within the last few years. Formerly this slag was looked upon as an incumbrance of the works, and unless the furnaces were near to some ravine or body of water where the slag could be conveniently dumped its disposal was often a matter of considerable expense. A great deal of slag is still allowed to go to waste, but the uses to which it is applied are now rapidly increasing from year to year. Large quantities are now being used as raw material in the manufacture of glass, bricks, paving blocks, and particularly as a source of raw material used in about one-tenth of the Portland cement produced in this country.

The slag obtained from the blast furnace is low in all the recognized fertilizing elements, and therefore has never found any application in the manufacture of fertilizers, although its use for such a purpose has been suggested. Of much more value in this connection is the slag obtained in the preparation of steel from high phosphorus pig iron. To remove the excess of phosphorus the iron is melted in converters lined with limestone, and quantities of quicklime are added to the molten metal. At a certain stage air is driven through the molten material, which leads to an accumulation in the slag of the phosphorus originally present in the metal. This slag, which floats on the molten metal, is drawn off and cooled, and when finely ground is placed on the market under the trade name of basic slag. The phosphoric acid in the slag prepared in this way varies from 11 to 23 per cent. For a long time the fertilizing value of the slag was not recognized, but it has now become one of the most popular of commercial fertilizers. In fact, on account of its freedom from acidity many prefer it to any other phosphatic material. Owing to the low phosphorus content of most American ores the basic slag produced in this country is small in amount. In other countries the slag produced for the fertilizer trade amounts to about 2,000,000 tons annually.

The third main avenue for escape of waste products in the blast furnace is through volatilization from the furnace. These losses in the form of gas, dust, and fume are receiving special attention at present. In the operation of the modern blast furnace a portion of the waste gases is utilized directly in gas engines for making a blast or for generating electric 260

power, while the remainder is used in burning under boilers and in heating stoves for preheating the blast. Before being used for any of these purposes the gas is passed through dust collectors and a water-spraying system for the removal of the suspended dust and fume. Complete removal of this suspended material has been found, however, to be a matter of considerable difficulty. With the present installations for purifying the portion of the gases used for burning, a portion of the dust always escapes absorption and is either deposited in the stoves and boilers or is carried up the flues. The dust collected in the stoves and boilers has long been known to have some fertilizing value, but little attention was given to it until recently, when it was found that the dust collected in some plants contains sometimes upwards of 20 per cent of soluble potash. Dust of this kind is now being disposed of for use in fertilizers.

In an investigation recently made at one of the steel plants of this country it has been found that the potash in the dust collected in the stoves and boilers amounts to only about 5 per cent of the total escaping from the furnace. The greater part is lost in the washers or escapes from the flues. A little over a year ago tests also were made at the same plant with an electrostatic or hot dry process for purifying the gas. The results showed that the extent to which the gases could be purified in this way compared very favorably with that obtained in the most complete installations of the present cold wet process. In addition there was secured by the hot dry method a high percentage recovery not only of potash but also of other materials, as iron and zinc compounds, which may be carried over in the dust. The possibilities of potash recovery in the steel industry are promising, but owing to the abnormal conditions now prevailing in this industry new developments are likely to be postponed for the present.

POTASH FROM THE CEMENT INDUSTRY.

A good illustration of a case in which a valuable product is lost in an industry without it being known for a long time that a waste is actually taking place is furnished by the escape of potash from cement plants. In the manufacture of Portland cement an intimate mixture of a material like clay and

limestone is ignited at a high temperature to the point of fusion. For many years it was thought that in the manufacture of cement this product was the only one produced, and that therefore no loss of any other material took place. It is now known, however, that in the burning of cement a greater or less proportion of the potash occurring in the raw materials is driven off and escapes from the kilns with the flue dust. Even after it was noticed that some loss of potash took place in this way, little importance was attached to the observation until analyses were made four or five vears ago of some dust collected at the plant of the Riverside Portland Cement Co. The original object of collecting the dust at this plant was to comply with injunction proceedings instituted by the surrounding orange growers against the escape of dust from the plant. To the surprise of everyone the dust when collected was found to contain such a percentage of potash as to make its recovery a profitable procedure entirely apart from any other consideration. Since then a number of additional plants have also installed equipment for collecting the potash that escapes from the kilns, and at several other plants installations for the same purpose are now in building.

The recovery of potash at the Riverside plant now amounts to about 3 pounds per barrel of cement, or to about 60 per cent of the total potash that enters the kilns. This is now separated by leaching from the rest of the dust with which it is collected, and is placed on the market in the form of a concentrated salt containing about 80 per cent of potassium sulphate. At other plants, as the Security Cement & Lime Co., the potash is not separated from the dust, but the mixture of both is disposed of directly as collected for use in the manufacture of fertilizers.

In an investigation recently completed in the Bureau of Soils, it was shown that the potash that escapes from the different cement plants of the country varies from 0.35 to 5.34 pounds per barrel of cement, with an average of about 1.9 pounds. Taking 90,000,000 barrels as the average annual production of cement in this country, then it may be estimated that the total potash escaping from all the cement plants of the country as at present operated amounts to about 86,000 tons annually. Assuming in the light of re-

sults already obtained that it would be possible to recover in available form, say, 80 per cent of the total escaping, then the available potash that would be possible of recovery in the cement industry of this country amounts to about 70,000 tons annually.

It has been shown, moreover, that the amount of potash that escapes from cement plants may be increased by increasing the percentage occurring in the raw material or by increasing by chemical or other means the percentage of potash volatilized. If the same relative increase in the potash volatilized could be effected in all plants as has already been secured in some plants where potash is now being recovered, then the available recoverable potash in the cement plants of the country would be increased from 70,000 tons to about 100,000 tons annually. Still greater possibilities are to be expected by the use of feldspar and other potash minerals in the raw materials, and it is for reasons such as these outlined that the cement industry is looked upon as one of the principal potential sources of potash supply in this country.

FERTILIZERS FROM PLANT WASTES.

Since fertilizers are used as food for plants it will follow that plants, and particularly certain parts of plants, may serve as fertilizers for a new crop. This fact has long been recognized, and the wastes obtained in the utilization of all plant products may therefore be disposed of for fertilizer use. At one time a plant waste known as cottonseed meal, obtained in the manufacture of cottonseed oil, constituted the largest single source of nitrogenous material used in fertilizers, and the quantity still used for this purpose is in excess of 300,000 tons annually. Plant wastes of this kind. together with certain animal wastes, as dried blood, are now being used, however, more and more as feed for animals; but even in the utilization of organic wastes fertilizers will no doubt still always consume the greater number of products, for all may be used for fertilizer manufacture, but all are not suited as food for animals. A case of this kind is seen in the recovery of potash as a by-product in the manufacture of nicotine from tobacco waste. In this there is also furnished another illustration of the use as a fertilizer of a waste product recovered in the utilization of a waste.

Summing up, it may be stated that industrial wastes furnished about 40 per cent of the potash, 8 per cent of the phosphoric acid, and 85 per cent of the nitrogen used in this country in 1916.

The potash was obtained from such wastes as tobacco stems, cottonseed hulls, hardwood ashes, wool washings, blast-furnace flue dust, cement flue dust, and sugar residues; the phosphoric acid was furnished by such materials as bones, shells, fish scrap, and basic slag; and the nitrogen was obtained from wastes in the manufacture of castor, linseed, and fish oils; from animal wastes, as blood, hair, horns, hoofs, and hides; from leather and wool wastes; from coke; and from other substances too numerous to mention.

THE DESIGN OF PUBLIC ROADS.

By CHARLES H. MOOREFIELD,

Senior Highway Engineer, Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering.

MANY factors are to be considered in planning the improvement of almost any public road, let alone a system of roads for an entire community. Almost daily the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering is in receipt of the query "What kind of roads are cheapest and best for my community to build?" Replies necessarily must be more or less disappointing because the information in the letters of inquiry seldom is sufficient to warrant the Office in offering any very definite advice.

Road design is, in general, a local problem, the proper solution of which involves: (1) The safety, convenience, and comfort of those for whose use the road is intended; (2) the amount of funds available for the improvement; (3) the relative availability and cost of various road-building materials that might prove suitable for constructing a road of the general character desired.

In other words, the aim in planning public road improvements should be (1) to furnish the taxpayers the kind of public road accommodations they need and are able to pay for, and (2) to attain this purpose at the least possible ultimate cost to the public treasury.

In order to accomplish this the person who designs a road must be thoroughly familiar with local conditions, and must possess the judgment necessary to weigh the importance of the various factors that should be considered.

From what has been said it is evident that the most to be hoped from a general discussion of road design is a presentation of facts and suggestions that may serve in a measure to guide the judgment in adapting the design of a particular road to local conditions. Therefore, no attempt will be made to state definite and exact rules for designing roads to suit

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266 Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

Design and cost data for typical Federal-aid projects, proposed for the Secretary of

	Location.	· Traffic impor- tance.¹		Design data.				
ject.					Width.			
State and project		Horse.	Motor.	Read materials locally available.	Right of way.	Roadway.	Burface.	
Cal. 1	Bereslard to Redwood City	н.	V.H.	Stome	Fect. 60-66	Feet. 36	Feet. 20	
Cal. 3	Alameda County; bound- ary to Richmond.	v.H.	V.H.	Eliot stone	100-120	60-80	20	
Col. 1	Denver to Littleton	V.H.	V.H.	Basalt gravel, sand.	60	34	16	
Maine 1.	Brunswick to Gardner	L.	¥.		66	21-23	16	
Maine 2.	Waterville to Bangor	L.	M.	Gravel	66	21-23	16	
Md. 1	Buckeystown Turnpike	V.H.		Stone	40	24	15	
Md. 2	Bladeusburg to Lanham	V.H.	V.H.	••••••	40	24	16	
Mass. 1	Fairhaven to Long Plain	V.H.	V.H.	Ledge rock and sand.	50	24	18	
Mass. 3	Newburyport Turnpiks	V.H.	V.H.	Stone and gravel	50		18	
Mich. 2	Saugatuck, Holland	V.H.	V.H.	None	66	24	16	
Mich. 8	South Haven, Saugatuck	M.	M.	None	66		16	
Minn. 2.	Chisago County, Twin Cities—Duluth.	L.	M.	Clay and gravel.	66	34	16	
Minn. 8.	Winone County, river road		L.	Nome	66	24		
Minn 12.	St. Paul—Stillwater	M.	V.H.	Gravel	66	24	16	
N. H. 1	Rockingham County, La Fayette road.	н.	V.H.	Gravel	50-80	×	18	
N. C. 2	Henderson County, Hick- ory Nut Gap.	L.	M.	Gravel	40	18	0	
N.C.3	McDowell County, Swana- noa Gap	L.	L.	Sand and gravel.	40	18	0	
N. C. 5		L.	L.	Sand and clay	40		16	
Pa. 1	Waterford, Susquehanua	M.	L.	None	40	26	16	
Pa. 2	Washington and Allegheny Counties, Washington Pike.	L.	M.	Nome	36	26	16	
Pa. 3,	Johnstown, Mundys Corner.	V. H.	ν. н.	Sand	23	26	16	

¹ Daily traffic: Light (L.), 1 to 100 vehicles; moderate (M.), 101 to 200 vehicles; heavy (H.), 201 to 300 vehicles; very heavy (V. H.), over 300 vehicles.

² Revised estimate.

² Reconnaissance estimate.

⁴ Bids received, low bid, \$34, 308.12.

improvement by various State highway departments and approved by Agriculture.

Design data—Continued.			Cost data (estimated).					
Maxi- mum grade.			ject.	Cost per mile.				project.
Per cent.	Length	Kind of surfacing.	Length of project.	Grading.	Bridges and only exts.	Surfacing.	Total per mile.	Total cost of project
4.0	M i. 0. 02	Bituminous concrete (Topeka specifications).	Miles. 4. 235	\$ 3,3 9 0.13	\$1,894.68	\$18, 629. 90	\$18,914.71	*\$80, 103. 79
1.70	. 10	do	2.55	2,825.09	2,584.74	17, 420. 24	22, 280. 07	2 56, 614. 21
8. 10	.09	Concrete	3. 95	906. 25	1,992.27	12, 528. 07	15, 426. 59	* 60, 93 5. 04
7.9 2.8 6.0	.06 .02	Bituminous macadam. Gravel	6. 98 2. 01 3. 32 2. 182	1,937.45 1,262.81 2,724.40 3,964.17	1,296.25 257.49 1,764.53 952.84	4,381.77 15,548.42 16,927.77 16,843.99	7,615.47 17,068.72 21,416.70 21,761.00	282,666.91 853,156.03 434,308.12 571,103.45 447,483.42
4.1	.06	Bituminous macadamdo	5. 983	1,176.66	545.68	17, 454 . 16 11, 6 10. 86	13,338.20	4 28, 223. 50 2 19, 772. 55
5. 5	.04	Gravel		1,512.62 933.77		11,854.72 2,100.18		* 98, 000. 00 *110, 000. 00
		None at present	5. 30	2, 984. 64 1, 338. 68 632. 50	811. 32	2, 595. 30 12, 288. 45	4,245.30	7 24,000.00 8 22,506.00 2 16,341.14
6.0	. 08	None	7.75	1,740.04	1,665.47		3,405.51	³ 26, 392. 83
ļ		do	8.0	7,671.94	990.00		8,661.94	25, 985. 83
		Sand-clay or top soll	8.00	892. 37	286. 72	440.00	1,619.09	⁸ 12, 962. 76
8.9	. 06	Vitrified brick, con-	2. 675	2, 989. 10	1,518.05	21,981.69	26, 488. 84	² 70, 857. 65
9. 2	. 15	Reinforced concrete	6.48	4,087.67	2, 381. 56	18, 338. 87	24, 758. 10	² 1 6 0, 43 3. 53
8. 5	.22	Vitrified brick, con- crete foundation.	6. 234	2, 667. 53	1,941.99	29, 244 . 04	33, 853. 56	² 211,043.28

⁵ Bids received, low bid, \$72,843.82.

To be revised.

⁷ Reconnaissance estimate. To be surfaced with gravel after heavy fills have had time to settle.

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Design and cost data for typical Federal-aid projects, proposed for the Secretary of .

							- 1
		m	.ma	Des	ign data.		
Ject.	Location.	im			V	7idth.	
State and project.		Натве.	Motor.	Road materials locally available.	Right of way.	Roadway.	Burface.
R. I. 1	Washington County, So. Kingston Post Road.	L.	V. H.	Gravel and sand.	Feet. Variable	Feet. 24-28	Feet. 18
Vt. 1	Chittenden County, French Hill.	L.	M.	Gravel and stone		•••••	21
Vt. 2	Winooski, River Road	M.	M.	Gravel and stone	50		21
Va. 1	Russell County, Moccasin Gap.	L.	L.	Limestone and chert.	80	18	12
Va. 2	Prince William County, Marumsco-Neapsco.	M.	н.	Gravel	30	22	16
Va. 3	Hampton, Newport News.	V. н .	v. н.	None	80-40		16
Va. 4	Danville-Martinsville	L.	L.	Boll	80		20
Wash. 1.	Thurston County, Pacific Highway.	M.	V. H.	None	60	26-30	20
Wash. 2.	Navy Yard, Clifton Port	M.	L.	Gravel	60	20-30	12
Wash. 3.	Stevens County, Meyers Falls-Kettle Falls.	L.	M.	Gravel	60-120	20-24	12
Wash. 4.	Clarke County, Pacific Highway.	L.	M.	Nomé	60	28-30	14
Wash. 6.		L.	H.	Gravel	60	24	14

¹ Reconnaissance estimate.

conditions. The most important features of the problem will be taken up separately and discussed with a view to showing the variations in current practice and the influence of some special conditions, with regard to each feature.

The table on pages 266 to 269 presents data relating to the design of a number of roads proposed by various States and approved by the Secretary of Agriculture for improvement as Federal-aid projects under the recent act of Congress providing for Federal cooperation in the improvement of post roads. These proposed improvements were planned by the State highway departments and approved by the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering. The designs were based on a thorough knowledge of local conditions, on the

improvement by various State highway departments and approved by Agriculture—Continued.

I	Desig	n data—Continued.			Cost	data (esti	mated).	
Max mu grad	m		ject.		Cost p	er mile.		project.
Per cent.	Length	Kind of surfacing.	Length of project.	Grading.	Bridges and oulverts.	Surfacing.	Total per mile.	Total cost of project.
5. 4	Mi. 0. 02	Bituminous concrete	Miles. 3.66	\$4,601.07	\$52 3. 55	\$17,624.79	\$22,749.41	1 \$83 , 262,85
		Gravel with crushed- stone base.	.9	3, 262. 50	2,517.77	5,321.88	11, 102, 00	1 9, 991. 52
7.0	.05	do	.66 4,38		500.00 1,014.68		, ,	1 6, 450. 9 2 28, 441. 23
6.0	. 16	Gravel	8. 56	4,400.00	1,647.59	4, 574. 58	10,622.17	2 37, 814. 92
		Concrete	3. 45 8. 03				, ,	1 50,000.00 1 21,300.00
8.0	. 13	Concrete	3. 50	1,923.63	170. 30	15, 543. 34	17,637.27	2 61, 730. 45
		Graveldo	9. 92 5. 98		1,824.09 1,184.89			1 82,087.89 1 40,000.00
		Gravel or macadam	3.62	11, 798. 56	3,040.45	5,117.40	19, 956. 41	1 72, 242. 28
		Gravel	3.41	6,098.38	4,775.52	2,845.13	13,719.08	1 46, 781. 90

2 Revised estimate.

part of the State highway departments, and while in many cases the limited amount of funds available for a particular project has made it inexpedient to plan the improvement for that project with the sole view of securing greatest ultimate economy, it is believed that the improvements as planned will in all cases prove at least fairly satisfactory, and will undoubtedly justify expenditures equal to the estimated costs.

Figures 4, 5, and 6 are typical cross sections, illustrating the design of the various types of roads for which data are given in the table, though none of the cross sections is an exact reproduction of that used on any project. The cross sections are intended to cover a wider range of practice than that covered by the table, and the following remarks regarding various features of the design are intended to aid in applying the information furnished by both the table and the cross sections.

DRAINAGE.

Every person living in a humid climate is familiar with the action of water in converting clay into mud and in causing all kinds of soils, except sand, to give way when a load is applied. But in spite of this widespread knowledge inadequate drainage probably is responsible for more road failures than any other cause.

The subject of road drainage is too broad to be discussed adequately in an article of this kind, but the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering has issued several bulletins dealing with this subject. Copies of these may be secured by purchase from the superintendent of documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., or in cases where the department's supply has not been exhausted copies may be secured free by addressing the Division of Publications of the department.

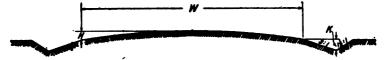
SELECTION OF SURFACE TYPE.

There are some seven or eight well-recognized types of road surface, each of which is well adapted to certain sets of conditions. Most of these types are illustrated roughly by means of the cross sections shown in figures 4, 5, and 6. Before discussing the question of how to select the proper type of surface for a particular road it seems desirable to point out at least some of the limitations to which the different types are subject. For complete discussions of the various types the reader is referred to other publications of the department that have been prepared from time to time by the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering.

The cross sections indicate, in a general way, the range of dimensions in good design practice, with each type of surface. There are many special circumstances, however, that may make it desirable to modify the cross sections entirely outside of the limits shown. In the peninsular section of Florida, for example, many brick roads are being con-

structed with no other foundation than the natural sandy soil of the roadbed, and, under such favorable climatic conditions, they may prove satisfactory for many years. The so-called monolithic type of brick pavement is another modification which is being used satisfactorily in some localities. In constructing this latter type the sand bedding is omitted entirely and the bricks are laid directly upon the green-concrete foundation.

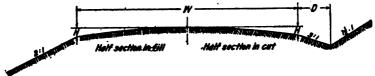
The typical design for concrete roads is sometimes modified by the introduction of steel reinforcement, which is



CROSS SECTION OF EARTH BOAD COMPLETED WITH GRADING MACHINE.

W should be not less than 20 feet. K usually varies from 12 inches to 18 inches and depends on width of road and amount of water to be carried;

H, crown, varies from one-half inch to the foot for level grades to 1 inch to the foot for grades of 5 per cent or over.



TIPICAL CROSS SECTION OF EARTH ROAD.

W should be not less than 20 feet. D varies from 2 feet to 6 feet, depending on rainfall and grade; H, crown, varies from one-half inch to the foot for level grades to 1 inch to the foot for grades of 5 per cent and over.

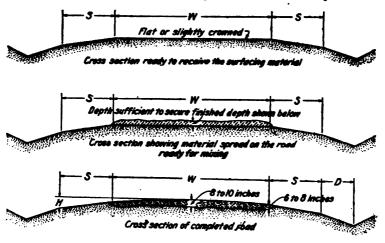
Fig. 4.

intended to prevent objectionable cracks from forming in the pavement. Also, where first-class concrete materials are scarce the pavement may be constructed in two courses, so that an inferior grade of aggregate may be used in the lower part of the concrete.

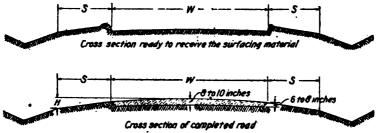
Bituminous roads may be constructed either by the mixing or penetration method. When the mixing method is followed the surface is called bituminous concrete, and when the penetration method is followed the surface is called bituminous macadam. A variety of bituminous materials are used in connection with either method. For these reasons neither the method nor the bituminous material is indicated on the typical cross-section drawing.

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The method of constructing water-bound macadam roads does not vary over a very wide range in good practice, but the quality of the stone used may affect the efficiency of such



- A. TYPICAL CROSS SECTIONS SHOWING METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING A SAND-CLAY ROAD BY MIXING SAND OR CLAY WITH THE ROADBED MATERIAL.
- W should be at least 12 feet for single-track road and S generally not less than 5 feet. For double track W should be not less than 14 feet and S not less than 3 feet; H, crown, varies from 1 inch to the foot for level grade to 1 inch to the foot for a grade 5 per cent or over; D varies from 2 feet to 6 feet, depending on rainfall and grade.

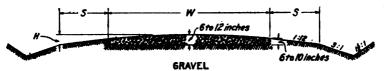


- B. Typical Cross Sections Showing Method of Constructing a Sand-Clay Road, Using Topsoil or Other Natural Mixture.
- W should be at least 10 feet for single-track road and S generally not less than 5 feet. For double track W should be not less than 14 feet and S not less than 3 feet; H, crown, varies from one-half inch to the foot for level grade to 1 inch to the foot for a grade of 5 per cent or over.

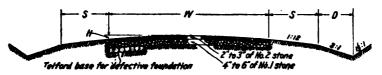
F1G. 5.

roads to a considerable extent. Water-bound macadam, after being opened to traffic, frequently receives a surface treatment of bituminous material and stone chips or pea gravel.

Surface treatments of this kind generally are classed asmaintenance work, because their purpose is to allay dust and

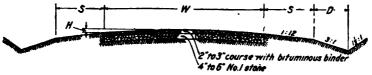


W'should be at least 10 feet for single track road, and "S" generally not less than 5 feet. For double track "W'should be not less than 14 feet, and "S" not less than 3 feet with slope I:12 "H", crown, varies from g" to the foot for level grade, to 1" to the foot for a grade of 5% or over



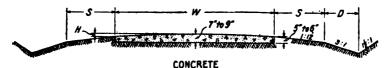
WATER-BOUND MACADAM

"W'should be at least 10 feet, and 3" at least 3 feet." D"should be from 2 feet to 6 feet depending on rainfall and grade. "H", crown should be g" to the foot. No. I stone ; 2" to 3" in size. No. 2 stone - 1" to 2" in size.



BITUMINOUS MACADAM

"W"should be at least 10 feet and 5 at least 3 feet "D"should be from 2 feet to 8 feet depending on rainfall and grade."H",crown, should be about \$\frac{1}{2}\$ to the foot.



"W" should be at least 10 feet, and "5" at least 3 feet. "D" should be from 2 feet to 6 feet depending on rainfall and grade." H, crown should be about £ to the foot

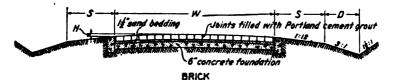


Fig. 6.-Typical cross sections.

at the same time permit the substitution of continuous maintenance for periodic renewals. But surface treatments

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really change the nature of the surface and adapt it to a class of traffic different from that for which plain water-bound macadam is adapted.

Gravel, sand-clay, and earth roads must all frequently be modified from the typical designs shown, so as to adapt the construction to the materials available or the conditions encountered.

In order to select the type of surface best adapted to the needs of a particular road it is necessary to consider (1) the class of traffic to which the road will be subjected, and (2) to compare the estimated ultimate costs of the different surface types which would be capable of withstanding that particular class of traffic in a manner satisfactory to the community. A practical way to proceed in making the selection would be:

- (1) Estimate the traffic importance of the road in question, as indicated in connection with table of design and cost data.
- (2) Eliminate from consideration all surface types, except those which experience has shown to be well adapted for the traffic in question. To do this requires, of course, a study of the efficiency records of existing improved roads which fall in the same traffic class. Unfortunately, the number of roads for which accurate traffic and efficiency records have been kept is not sufficient to warrant very definite conclusions to be drawn, covering all classes of traffic and types of construction. The following summary supplies about as definite information on this point as can be drawn from available records:
 - (a) Earth roads, when properly maintained, are satisfactory in dry weather for a light volume of all kinds of highway traffic.
 - (b) Sand-clay roads are the same as earth roads, except that the surfacing material has been selected carefully with a view to increasing the stability of the surface in both wet and dry weather. They are satisfactory for a moderate traffic of horse-drawn vehicles and a light traffic of automobiles. They seldom are satisfactory for even a light traffic of heavy trucks unless the roadbed material is very stable.

- (c) Gravel roads, when well built, are satisfactory for a heavy traffic of horse-drawn vehicles, a light traffic of automobiles, and a light traffic of heavy trucks.
- (d) Water-bound macadam roads are adapted to the same general character of traffic as gravel roads.
- (e) Surface-treated macadam roads are adapted especially for a heavy traffic of automobiles. They also are satisfactory for a light traffic of horse-drawn vehicles and heavy trucks. In all cases they require constant maintenance.
- (f) Bituminous roads are suitable for a heavy traffic of both automobiles and horse-drawn vehicles and a moderate traffic of heavy trucks.
- (g) Concrete roads are adapted to the same general class of traffic as bituminous roads, and generally are capable of withstanding the traffic of somewhat heavier vehicles without injury.
- (h) Brick roads are adapted to the same general class of traffic as concrete roads. Either brick or concrete roads, however, may be economical for only moderate traffic where other road-building materials are scarce.
- (3) The final step in selecting the surface type is to pick out, from the two or three types adapted to the kind of traffic involved, the particular type which, in the long run, will prove cheapest. This problem usually must be solved separately for each read, because the factors which enter into its solution are nearly always different for different roads.

The principal factors to be considered in estimating the ultimate cost of a road are cost of construction and cost of continuous maintenance. The incidental cost to the users of a road on account of deflecting traffic for periodic repairs also may be a factor in determining the relative efficiency of a particular type of road surface, but since it is practically impossible to estimate this cost, it can be considered only in a very general way.

The cost of construction depends principally on the availability of materials and the cost and efficiency of labor. The cost of continuous maintenance depends on the same considerations with the additional elements of traffic, climate, and soil conditions to be considered. The human element which

determines the kind of organization under which work is done may also have an important bearing on the cost of both construction and maintenance.

The table on this page illustrates how the efficiency of different types of surfaces may be compared after the construction, reconstruction, and maintenance costs have been estimated for a period covering the life of the most durable type considered. In the hypothetical case for which this table was prepared, it was assumed that any one of three surface types (I, II, and III) would satisfy the traffic, and the whole problem was to choose the most economical of the three types.

Method of making economic comparison of road surfaces.

-	Ту	pe of surfe	ice.
Item.	I	п	m
Estimated life of surface with proper maintenance (years)	8	10	15
Original construction cost per mile	\$ 6,000	\$10,000	\$16,000
Cost of necessary reconstruction during a period of 15 years Estimated cost of maintaining surface per mile:	3,000	5,000	
A verage annual	400	200	50
Total at end of 15 years	6,000	3,000	750
struction, reconstruction, and maintenance to end of 15- year period, per mile:			
Original construction	4,500	7,500	12,000
Reconstruction	1,050	1, 250	l
Maintenance.	2,400	1, 200	300
Total	7,950	9,950	12,300
Total cost per mile at end of 15-year period	22,950	27,950	29,050
Value of road surface per mile at end or 15-year period	3,400	7,500	ļ
Net outlay per mile of road	19,500	20, 450	29,050

For the hypothetical case illustrated, the choice of surface evidently lies between Types I and II. The net outlay at the end of the 15-year period is slightly in favor of type I, but the difference is so slight that the question of which estimate contains the fewer uncertainties probably should prove the deciding factor. In this case, Type III, notwithstanding its relatively long life and low maintenance cost, could not be economically considered.

On account of the uncertainties that always enter into estimates of construction and maintenance costs, it might be argued that any attempt at scientific comparisons of this kind is worthless. But the same uncertainties still would be present if the decision were made a matter of "lump-sum" judgment, and there always is a greater chance for accuracy, even in a rough guess, where each of the factors which should influence the judgment is guessed at separately. If it were desired to compare the areas of two fields, for example, the first step would be to measure or estimate the linear dimensions of each. If the difference in area were small, and the dimensions were guessed at, there is a possibility, of course, that the smaller field might be mistaken for the larger, but the probability of such erroneous judgment would be much less than if the areas were guessed at without reference to the dimensions.

The matter of how to estimate the cost of constructing and maintaining the various types of road surfaces does not fall properly within the scope of this paper, and, accordingly, will not be discussed. The estimating of costs is treated to some extent in bulletins of the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering and to a much greater extent in textbooks and the engineering press. However, the design controls the cost, and each feature of the design therefore should be given very careful consideration in the preparation of comparative estimates of cost.

WIDTHS.

The widths of the roads for which design data are shown in the table of design and cost data vary over a wide range and appear to be practically independent of the traffic importance of the roads. This lack of relation between width and traffic importance is general, and results in large part from the necessity for designing improvements to fit cases where both the cost and length of road to be improved are definitely limited at the start.

Highway engineers are fairly well agreed that for ultimate economy the surfaced portion of a road should be at least sufficiently wide to allow traffic to distribute itself over the entire surface and thus prevent the concentration of wear in two narrow tracks. The minimum width that will enable a fair distribution of traffic over the surface is about 12 feet, but a width of 12 feet falls just short of providing space for two vehicles to pass each other safely, and

seldom is employed. A surface width of 14 feet is sufficient for horse-drawn vehicles to pass each other conveniently, and 16 feet is sufficient for automobiles, though 18 feet is greatly preferable, especially where the traffic is mixed. The 18-foot surface is being used to a considerable extent in many of the wealthier communities, and for moderately heavy traffic is proving economical as well as convenient.

Figure 7 is a cross section of the road between Washington D. C., and Baltimore, Md., and illustrates a design which, in some cases, has proved very economical. Here, a very durable surface has been constructed along the central por-

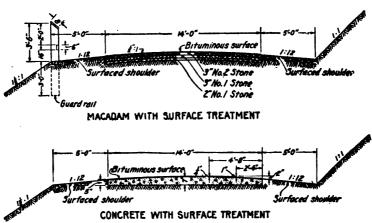


Fig. 7—Typical cross sections, Washington-Baltimore road.

tion of the road to a width of 14 feet, and a less durable surface of gravel or crushed stone has been constructed along each side as shoulders, adjoining the central surface. The central width of 14 feet carries most of the traffic over this road, but the shoulders are maintained in good condition, and the whole surface, taken together, forms a much more commodious roadway than would a 16 or 18 foot central surface with unsurfaced shoulders. On less heavily traveled roads a similar design sometimes is employed, using a 9 or 10 foot width of central surface with shoulders of firm earth, gravel, or stone. For a design of this kind to prove satisfactory, however, continuous and efficient maintenance of the shoulders is absolutely essential. If the shoulders are not maintained true to cross section, and firm, the danger of

accidents to automobile traffic is very great. In fact, the danger may be greater than with a single-track road surface, 9 or 10 feet wide, having shoulders of sand or other unstable material, because in the latter case drivers soon learn to take necessary precautions when leaving the surfaced portion of the road in order to pass another vehicle. They also learn to exercise care in selecting the point at which a passing is made.

No matter what the surfaced width of a road may be, the total width of roadway always should be sufficient to provide a reasonable margin of safety when vehicles are passing each other, with some allowance for unexpected maneuvers on the part of frightened animals or inexperienced drivers. A total width of about 20 feet is the minimum that will provide reasonable security and is the minimum that should be employed under any circumstances. Another consideration that frequently serves to fix the total width is that moderately wide shoulders can be maintained much more readily than narrow ones. On embankments it is customary to make the shoulders at least 4 feet wide and in cuts at least 3 feet. This means that where the surfaced width of a road is to be 16 feet, its total width should be not less than 24 feet on embankments and 22 feet in cuts.

The width of right of way necessary for a road varies with the topography as well as with the width of roadway. Where the topography is flat, or gently rolling, a 50-foot right of way is sufficient for a 20-foot road, while for very rolling or hilly country a 60-foot right of way may be required for a 20-foot road. For roadways wider than 20 feet the width of right of way should, in general, be increased by an amount equal to the additional width of roadway. In other words, the right of way should generally be from 30 to 40 feet wider than the roadway.

GRADES.

The question of maximum allowable grades is a very important consideration in designing a road. In deciding this question there are several important factors to consider:

(1) The main roads should, in general, have easier grades than the feeder roads, so that any load that may be hauled

on to a main road can be hauled over it without increasing the motive power.

- (2) The better a road surface, the easier should be the grades, otherwise the full benefit of the improved surface will not be secured on comparatively level stretches of the road. For example, on a level grade a horse can pull about twice as much over a gravel-road surface as over a surface of ordinary earth, but on a 5 per cent grade the increased motive power required for the same loads would be only about 100 per cent for earth as against more than 150 per cent for gravel. In the case of motor vehicles this increase in motive power can be effected within limits by shifting the gears and where motor vehicles will constitute most of the traffic the matter of grades is not so important.
- (3) According to the best current practice, the maximum grade for roads that are of sufficient importance to warrant a highly improved surface is determined in great measure by the topography of the region traversed. The following tabulation shows the usual range for various conditions of topography:

	rer	cei	1£.
Coastal plain and prairie regions	2	to	3
Average rolling country	. 4	to	6
Hilly or mountainous regions	6	to	R

The question of minimum grade is of importance only as regards the side ditches. These always should have sufficient fall to drain off the water they collect without allowing the roadbed to become saturated. Ordinarily, it is desirable to give the side ditches a fall of not less than about 1 foot per 100 feet of length, but for comparatively short distances, and for deep ditches, a somewhat less fall may prove adequate.

SLOPES.

The proper slope for the sides of cuts and embankments is an important detail in the design of a road, and is influenced by both the character of the soil and the climate. In cuts a good quality of nonslaking clay will stand on a slope of about 45 degrees or, as slopes are expressed, 1 horizontal to 1 vertical, where fairly deep freezing occurs; and in some of the Southern States such material has been known to stand for many years on a slope of less than $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. On the other hand, clay that slakes very easily may require a slope of as much as 3 or 4 to 1 in order to prevent erosion, even where climatic conditions are favorable. The usual slope for clay is, in warm climates, 1 to 1 for cuts and $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 for embankments, and in cold climates, $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 for cuts and 2 to 1 for embankments.

Sand of average quality requires a slope of about 2 to 1 in cuts and 3 to 1 in embankments, regardless of the climate. Moderately coarse sand mixed with gravel will stand on a steeper slope than fine sand, because the former is not moved so readily by storm water.

Rock cuts, as a rule, are not dressed down to even an approximately smooth surface. In excavating solid rock only such material is moved as is necessary to secure the desired width of roadway, the faces being cleared, of course, of all material which is loose, or which might become loosened by frost and slide down upon the road. Stone embankments will stand on a slope of about 1 to 1.

In order to prevent defacement of earth slopes by erosion, after the road is complete, it is well to include in the design some provision for grass or vine protection. In cold climates a growth of honeysuckle makes a good protection, and may be secured by planting honeysuckle slips either late in the fall or early in the spring. The slips are obtained from existing vines and are planted about 18 inches apart in each direction. In warm climates Bermuda grass makes an excellent sod for the protection of slopes and is cultivated easily. Tufts of the grass are planted about 12 inches apart in each direction.

On concluding this discussion of road design it is desired to emphasize the all-important fact that well-balanced and experienced judgment is a much more valuable asset in planning public road improvements than any amount of theoretical knowledge. No knowledge gained from books alone can give a complete grasp of the relations existing between a public road and the community it serves. Theory is simply the sign post that points the way, while judgment is the vehicle on which the journey is dependent.

CONSERVATION OF FERTILIZER MATERIALS FROM MINOR SOURCES.

By C. C. FLETCHER,

Scientist, Investigation of Fertilizer Resources, Bureau of Soils.

TN view of the present scarcity of fertilizers, it becomes 1 advisable to use as soil amendments many substances that might not ordinarily be employed. The large general farmer has to rely principally upon stable manure, commercial fertilizers, and green manure crops, but the small farmer or suburbanite often can use to advantage a great variety of waste substances valuable as fertilizers, but obtainable in such small quantities as to make it unprofitable to handle them on a commercial scale. In butchering hogs on the farm the blood, entrails, etc., are usually wasted. These are all valuable fertilizers. Practically all kitchen waste should be fed to animals if possible; but if no chickens or pigs are kept it should be used in composts as fertilizer. leaves, weeds, sweepings from the house and barn, coffee grounds, banana peelings, soot, wood ashes, etc., all have fertilizer value. These and many other materials should be saved and either applied direct to the soil or composted with manure before using.

MAKING COMPOSTS.

It is possible to make composts in various ways, but the most common way is to alternate layers of stable manure with waste and absorbent materials, such as dried leaves, peat, muck, sods, etc. The pile is kept moist and turned several times thoroughly to mix the compost. The outside of the pile may be kept covered with soil. Where possible, at least half of the material used should be manure, but if this much can not be obtained a small amount should be used, in any event, to inoculate the heap with the bacteria of decomposition.

Another method of composting, practicable where hogs are available, is to keep the animals in a tight pen, the floor

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of which is covered with a layer of muck, straw, or leaves. Absorbent material is added as needed, and the residues of foods, together with the manure, are thoroughly mixed and tramped by the pigs. If care is used, this practice will yield a large amount of valuable compost. Especially good results may be obtained by feeding thus during the summer, as then weeds and cull vegetables from the garden may be used as feed during the entire garden season. A single pig, bought in the spring, may prove a profitable investment as a source of manure for the home garden. The author has obtained from a compost of this sort results practically equal to well-rotted manure.

COAL ASHES AND SPOILED FEEDS.

Coal ashes have little value as a fertilizer, but when mixed with heavy clay soils they make the latter more productive by the loosening of the soil and the consequent improvement of moisture and tillage conditions. Often wood is used in starting coal fires, and as wood ashes contain from 5 to 10 per cent of potash this admixture tends to add to the value of the coal ashes. Soot is especially valuable for its content of nitrogen, averaging 3 per cent. It should be carefully saved.

Almost all commercial feeding stuffs are good fertilizers. They are usually worth more as feeds than as fertilizers, but often they become moldy or otherwise unfit for food, and, in such event, instead of being destroyed, they should be saved and applied to the soil. The feeds rich in nitrogen are especially valuable, such as cottonseed meal, bran, and beef scrap.

ANALYSES OF VARIOUS MATERIALS.

The majority of materials of which analyses are given below are not of sufficient value to justify purchase for use as fertilizers, but they are of sufficient value to warrant composting or similar treatment on individual farms where they may happen to be available at little or no cost.

The following table, compiled mainly from standard textbooks, experiment station reports, and analyses made in the laboratory of the Bureau of Soils, giving percentages of nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash, will show the relative

values of many substances that may sometimes be used to advantage as fertilizer materials. For comparison, there are shown at the head of the list some of the more common fertilizer materials.

Fertilizer value of various materials expressed in percentages of nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash content.

COMMON MATERIALS.

Fertilizer.	Nitrogen.	Phosphoric acid.	Potash.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Calcifum cyanamid			
Ammonium sulphate	19.0 to 20.5		İ
Nitrate of soda			! !
Ground bone (raw)	2.5 to 4.5	20.0 to 25.0	
Dried blood	10.0 to 14.0	1.0 to 5.0	
Tankage	11.0 to 12.5	1.0 to 2.0	[
Acid phosphate		12.0 to 16.0	
Basic slag		., 17.0 to 18.0	
Raw ground phosphate rock		. 26.0 to 35.0	
Potassium sulphate	-		48.0 to 52.0
Potassium muriate			
Kainit			12.0 to 12.5
Dried sheep manure	1.51 to 3.09	.95 to 2.50	.33 to 2.2

OTHER MATERIALS.

			
Alfalfa hay	2. 45	0.50	2.10
Apple skins (ash)		3.08	11.74
Ash from Cana tree			1.5. 65
Banana skins (ash)		3. 25	41.76
Banana stalk (ash)		2.34	49. 40
Barley, grain	1.75	. 75	. 50
Bat guano	1 to 12	2.5 to 16	
Beet roots	. 25	. 10	. 50
Brewer's grains, wet	.90	. 50	. 05
Brigham tea (ash)			5. 94
Ground bone, burned		34.70	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
By-product from silk mills	8. 37	1.14	. 12
Cantaloupe rinds (ash)		9.77	12. 21
Castor-bean pomace	5 to 6	2 to 2.5	1 to 1.25
Cattail reed and stems of water lily	2. 02	. 81	3. 43
Cattail seed	.98	. 39	1.71
Coal ash, anthracite		.1 to .15	.1 to .15
Coal ash, bituminous		.4 to .5	.4 to .5
Cocoa-shell dust	1.04	1.49	2.71
Coffee grounds	2.08	.32	. 28
Coffee grounds, dried	1.99	. 36	. 67

¹Where different analyses of the same substances are given, they are slightly different products or are taken from different sources.

Fertilizer value of various materials expressed in percentages of nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash content—Continued.

OTHER MATERIALS—Continued.

Fertilizer.	Nitrogen.	Phosphoric acid.	Potash.
Corncobs, ground, charred	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Corneob ash			50.00
Common crab	1.95	3, 60	. 20
Corn, grain	1.65	.65	.40
, ,	.30	.13	.33
Corn, green forage	3. 15	1. 25	1. 15
Cottonseed-hull ashes.	3.15	7 to 10	15 to 30
Cottonseed-hull ash.		7 to 10 8.70	23.93
Cotton waste from factory	1.32	. 45	. 36
Cowpeas, green forage	.45	.12	. 45
Cowpeas, seed	3. 10	1.00	1.20
Cucumber skins (ash)	1	11.28	27. 20
Dried mussel mud	1	. 35	
Eggs.	2.25	. 40	. 15
Eggshells, burned		. 43	. 29
Feathers	15.30		
Field bean, seed	4.00	1. 20	1. 30
Field bean, shells	1.70	. 30	. 35
Firepit ashes from smokehouses			4.96
Fish scrap, red snapper and grouper	7.78	13.00	. 38
Fish scrap, fresh	2 to 7.5	1.5 to 6	
Fresh-water mud	1.37	. 26	. 22
Garbage rubbish (New York City)	3.4 to 3.7	.1 to 1.47	2.25 to 4.25
Garbage tankage	1 to 2	.5 to 1	.5 to 1
Greasewood ashes		. 	12.61
Garden beans, beans and pods	. 25	.08	. 30
Gluten feed	4 to 5	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Greensand		1 to 2	5. Q0
Grape refuse from wine factory	.75	. 20	. 40
Grapes, fruit	. 15	.07	.30
Grapefruit akins (ash)		3. 58	30.60
Hair	11.96		1
Do	14 to 16		
Harbor mud	. 99	.77	.06
Hoof meal and horn dust	10 to 15	1.5 to 2	
Kentucky bluegrass, hay	1.20	.40	1.55
King crab (dried and ground)	10.00	.26	.06
King crab (fresh)	2 to 2.5		
Lamb's quarters.	.97	. 24	
Leather, acidulated.	7 to 8		
Leather, ground.	10 to 12		l
Leather, scrap.	6.88		
Leather, scrap (ash)		2.16	. 35
Lemon culls, California	.15	.06	.26
Lemon skins (ash).		6.80	31.00
			. 91.00
Limekiln ash		. 75	2.00

Fertilizer value of various materials expressed in percentages of nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash content—Continued.

OTHER MATERIALS-Continued.

Fertilizer.	Nitrogen.	Phosphoric acid.	Potash.
. • .	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Lobster refuse	4.50	3. 50	
Lobster shells	4. 60	3. 52	
Milk	. 50	.30	0. 18
Mussels	.90	. 12	. 13
Molasses residue in manufacturing of alcohol	. 70		5. 32
Oak leaves	. 80	. 35	. 15
Oats, grain	2.00	.80	.60
Olive pomace	1.15	.78	1.26
Olive refuse	1. 22	.18	. 32
Orange culls	.20	. 13	. 21
Orange skins (ash)		2.90	27.00
Pea pods (ash)		1. 79	9.00
Peanuts, seeds, or kernels	8.60	.70	.46
Peanut shells	. 80	. 15	. 50
Peanut-sheli ash		1. 23	6.45
Picker dirt from cotton mill	1.87	.68	1. 56
Pigweed, rough	.60	.16	
Potatoes, tubers	.35	. 15	. 50
Potatoes, leaves and stalks	.60	. 15	. 45
Potato skins, boiled sweet (ash)		3, 29	13, 89
Potato skins, raw white (ash)		5.18	27. 50
Poudrette	1.48	3.68	. 48
Powder-works waste	2 to 3		16 to 18
Prufile refuse	.18	.07	.81
Pumpkins, flesh	.16	.07	. 26
Pumpkin seeds.	.87	.50	.44
Rabbit-brush ashes			13.04
Ragweed, great	. 76	. 26	10.0
Red clover, hay	2.10	.50	2.00
Red-top, hay	1.20	.35	1.00
Residuum from raw sugar	1.14	8.83	1.00
Rockweed	1.90	. 25	3, 69
	.30	.10	.40
Roses, flowers			
Rhubarb, stems	.10	.04	. 85
Rock and mussel deposit from sea	. 22	.09	1.78
Sagebrush (ashes)	•••••	- 	4.10
Do			5.42
Salt-marsh hay	1.10	. 25	.78
Salt mud	. 40		
Saltpeter waste	.52 to 3.3		5.6 to 13.7
Sardine scrap	7.97	7. 11	
Seaweed (Atlantic City, N. J.)	1. 68	.75	4.98
Shoddy and felt	4 to 12		
Shoddy dirt from woolen mill	4. 40	. 20	. 68
Shrimp heads (dried)	7.82	4. 20	
Shrimp waste	2.87	9. 95	
Siftings from oyster-shell mound	.36	10.38	.09

Fertilizer value of various materials expressed in percentages of nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash content—Continued.

OTHER MATERIALS-Continued.

Fertilizer.	Nitrogen.	Phosphoric acid.	Potash.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Silbworm cocoons	9. 42	1.82	1.08
Soot from chimney flues		1.05	. 85
Spanish moss	. 60	.10	. 55
Spent wash of distilleries (beet sugar, molasses,			
and sucrate liquors)	1.40		
Starfish	1.80	20	. 25
String-bean strings and stems (ash)		4.99	18.08
Sunflower seed	2. 25	··· 1.25	.79
Sweet potatoes	. 25	.10	. 50
Tan-bark ash		. 24	.38
Tan-bark ash, spent		1.5 to 2	1.5 to 2.5
Tea grounds	4.15	.62	. 40
Tea-leaf ash		1.60	.44
Timothy hay	1. 25	. 55	1.00
Tobacco leaves	4.00	. 50	6.00
Tobacco stalks	3.70	.65	4, 50
Tobacco stems	2.50	.90	7.00
Tomatoes, fruit	.20	.07	. 35
Tomatoes, leaves	.35	. 10	.40
Tomatoes, stalks	1	. 10	. 50
Wastes from hares and rabbits	7.00	1.7 to 3.1	. 60
Waste from felt-hat factory	13, 80		. 98
Waste product from paint manufacture	.028	39, 50	1
Waste gunpowder (sweepings from powder			•
mill)	10.28		84, 50
Waste silk	8 to 11		02.00
Wheat, bran	1	2.90	1.60
Wheat grain	1	.85	. 50
Wheat straw		. 15	. 60
White sage (ashes)			18.77
Wood ashes, leached		1 to 1.5	1 to 3
Wood ashes, unleached	1	1 to 2	4 to 10
Wool waste		2 to 4	1 to 3

THE PEANUT, A GREAT AMERICAN FOOD.

By H. S. Balley, Chemist in Charge, Oil, Fat, and Wax Laboratory, and J. A. LE CLERC, Chemist in Charge, Plant Chemical Laboratory, Bureau of Chemistry.

A T THIS time, when conservation of all our foodstuffs is necessary, special attention should be given to the peanut, one of America's best and cheapest foods. Not only can it be used in the place of wheat, thus saving a large amount of this cereal for the allies, but, being rich in protein and in fat, it may also serve as a meat substitute. The peanut is one of the most nutritious foods known to man, and possesses a very wide range of food possibilities. In one form or another it is almost universally eaten and enjoyed in this country, and it promises eventually to occupy an important place in the average well-balanced ration, as it now does in the dietary of a great many persons. Indeed the demand for this legume for human food purposes is increasing by leaps and bounds.

A pound of whole peanuts, as used in confections, peanut butter, etc., contains nearly one-half pound of fat and onefourth pound of protein, both the oil, or fat, and the protein being of a very high grade and readily digestible. One pound of peanuts furnishes about 2,700 calories, while 1 pound of beefsteak yields less than one-third as much, and 1 pound of eggs less than one-fifth that amount. If the peanuts are pressed and the flour and oil utilized separately, a delicious wheat substitute is obtained, in one case, and a sweet, wholesome table and cooking oil, in the other. Peanut meal rivals almond meal in popular favor. Both the peanut itself and the meal or flour are cheap sources of energy and protein, and lend themselves well to all sorts of culinary purposes. It should be understood that the peanut is a food, not a condiment, and therefore can be used to replace flour, meat, or fat. The oil extracted from the peanut is already one of the most important of the world's food oils.

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THE PEANUT CROP.

Like the pea and bean, the peanut is a legume, but differs from other legumes in that its fruit or seed matures beneath the surface of the soil, whence its name Arachis hypogea, which means growing below ground. Other names commonly applied to the peanut are ground nut, earthnut, ground pea, pindar, goober, goober pea. Probably a native of tropical America, it was introduced into the United States during the early colonial days. Only within the last half century, however, has the peanut assumed any commercial importance. Great strides have been made in its culture and consumption within the last decade, and in 1916 the South, which raises about 99 per cent of all the peanuts grown in this country, devoted over 1,000,000 acres to the culture of this plant, the yield being 34,600,000 bushels. So popular is this nut becoming that the number of acres planted to peanuts in the United States alone, in 1917, was estimated at over 2,000,000. The peanut is grown commercially not only in this country, but also in Central and South America, Algiers, Mozambique, India, West Africa, and China. In Marseille, the center of the European oil industry, in 1912, over 120,000 tons of peanuts in the shell and about 240,000 tons of shelled peanuts were crushed, yielding over 15,500,000 gallons of edible oil. It is estimated that 26,000,000 pounds of oil were produced in 1916 in the United States.

The average yield per acre in the United States is about 34 bushels of peanuts in the shell. A good yield is 60 bushels, with 1 to 1½ tons of hay. Yields of 160 bushels, with 2 tons of hay, per acre are on record. The estimated crop for 1917. in the United States, is approximately 60,000,000 bushels of peanuts in the shell, which would yield 20,000,000 bushels of shelled nuts. In practice, a mill can produce 1 gallon of oil from 1 bushel of peanuts in the shell. One acre of land that will produce 20 bushels of wheat, 40 bushels of oats, or 40 bushels of peanuts will yield 154 pounds of digestible protein in the form of wheat, 149 pounds in the form of oats, or 186 in the form of peanuts. It will yield 24 pounds of fat in the wheat, 61 in the oats, or 300 in the peanut. As fat and protein are the most valuable and expensive foods, it is apparent that the peanut should form one of the country's most important food crops.

TYPES OF PEANUTS GROWN.

Two different types of the peanut are grown in the United States—the Virginia, or Jumbo, type, which includes such well-known varieties as Virginia Bunch, Virginia Runner, North Carolina or Wilmington (African), and the Spanish type, which includes the true Spanish, the Georgia Red, Valencia, and Tennessee Red. The Spanish type is peculiarly adapted to the production of oil, while the best grades of the Spanish and the cheaper grades of the Virginia are commonly employed for the manufacture of peanut butter. Spanish type contains from 55 to 80 per cent of kernel, with an average of about 70, while the Virginia type contains somewhat less, from 50 to 75, with an average of 65 per cent. To a large extent this variation is due to the difference in the soil and climate prevailing in the various localities where peanuts are grown. The results of many analyses of the two types of peanuts give the following as the average composition of the kernel:

Average composition of the peanut kerne	Average	composition	of the	peanut	kernel
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Туре.	Water.	Ash.	Fat.	Protein (N×6.25).	Fiber.	Carbo- hydrates.	Calories per pound.
						Per cent.	
Spanish	4.2	2.6	50.0	26.0	2.1	15.1	2,870
Virginia	4.2	2.7	43.7	29.0	2.8	17.6	2,709
Shell 1	5.0-5.8	3.3-6.8	0. 10-0. 5	5.1-8.2	66.7-78.3		
8kin 1	9.6	7.7	14.2	15. 5	23.4		

¹ The shell and red skin have a certain food value, as shown by these analyses. The oil content of the shell may, however, fall as low as 0.1 per cent.

USES OF THE PEANUT.

The roasted peanut, the most popular of the different peanut foods, may be obtained at stores and of street vendors everywhere. It is easily eaten and forms a most important article of diet, being especially well adapted as a sort of emergency ration.

There is no definite rule as to the time of roasting. The usual practice in the case of peanuts in the shell is to maintain a temperature of from 400° to 450° F. for about 30 to 35 minutes, depending somewhat on the condition of the peanuts. Most peanut roasters merely gauge this by sampling them from time to time. When the shelled peanut is being roasted the temperature should not exceed 320° F.

The salted peanut is another form which is growing very rapidly in popular esteem. The peanuts are first roasted, then shelled and salted.

The blanched peanut, used in making brittle candy, cakes, and cookies, is prepared as follows: The blanching, which consists of removing the red skin and the germ, can be accomplished by rubbing the roasted and shelled peanuts by hand over a wire-bottomed screen or sieve. This rubbing removes the skin and separates the kernels into halves, at the same time removing the germ, which falls through the screen if it is of proper size. The skins can be separated from the meats by pouring the nuts from one vessel to another in front of a fan, which blows out the light seed coats.

During recent years great quantities of shelled peanuts have been converted into peanut butter, which has become very popular for use in soups, gravies, in connection with macaroni, and for sandwiches. The Spanish nuts, which give smoothness to the product, and Virginia nuts, which give flavor, are used for this purpose. In the process of manufacture the shelled and blanched roasted kernel is ground to a pulp by means of a special grinder similar to that used for chopping meat, about 1 to 3 per cent of salt being added during the grinding. (Pl. XLV, fig. 1.)

The Office of Home Economics, which is studying the digestibility and food value of peanuts along with methods of cooking them, has supplied the following recipes.

Some of the dishes suggested are suitable for luncheon or supper, others are substantial enough to serve as a dinner dish in place of meat. The muffins, salad, and sweets show how they may also have more extended use in the family diet.

PEANUT BUTTER.

Peanut butter can be made at home by grinding the roasted peanuts through the food chepper several times, using the nut knife. Add salt to taste. This makes a paste which may be thinned with a little cream or milk, if desired.

Another sandwich filling may be made by the following recipe:

1 cup milk or water.
1 tablespoon flour.
1 tablespoon water.
1 egg.
1 teaspoon salt.

1 tablespoon sugar.

1 tablespoon butter or other fat.

d cup vinegar. Red pepper.

2 cups roasted peanuts ground fine.

Heat the milk and while it is heating mix the flour with the water and add eggs, salt, and sugar. To this mixture add the heated milk. Cook five minutes, stirring constantly. Then add butter, vinegar, and ground peanuts.

CREAMED PEANUTS ON TOAST.

2 cups milk.	1 teaspoon cornstarch.
1 cup finely ground roasted peanuts.	1 teaspoon onion juice.
1 teaspoon salt.	description to the cup chopped stuffed olives.

Canned pimentos, chopped green peppers cooked until tender, or cooked celery are equally as good as stuffed olives.

Scald milk in the double boiler, reserving a tablespoon of cold milk to mix with the cornstarch. Add with onion juice and other seasonings to the hot milk. Let come to a boil and finish cooking over the double boiler. Add the peanuts the last thing before serving. Serve on toast.

Good for a luncheon dish.

CREAMED PEANUTS AND RICE.

1 cup rice (uncooked).	White sauce:
2 cups chopped peanuts.	3 tablespoons flour.
½ teaspoon paprika.	3 tablespoons fat.
2 teaspoons salt.	3 cups milk (whole or skim).

Boil the rice and make a white sauce by mixing the flour in the melted fat and mixing with the milk. Stir over fire until it thickens. Mix rice, peanuts, and seasoning with the sauce, place in greased baking dish and bake for 20 minutes.

PEANUT FONDU.

1 cup finely ground peanuts.	13 cups milk.
1 cup dried Liberty-bread crumbs.	1½ teaspoons salt.
1 egg.	Dash of paprika.

Grind the peanuts fine. Mix all the ingredients except the white of egg. Beat egg white very stiff and fold in. Bake in a buttered baking dish for 30 to 40 minutes in a moderate oven.

PEANUT LOAF.

1 cup chopped peanuts.	} teaspoon salt.
2 cups Liberty-bread crumbs.	1 teaspoon pepper.
2 tablespoons melted fat.	½ to ½ cup milk.
1 egg.	

Mix, using enough milk to make a moist loaf. Put in buttered pan and bake an hour in a moderate oven, keeping covered the first half hour. Baste once or twice with melted fat. Turn into a hot platter and sprinkle with chopped peanuts.

PEANUT-POTATO SAUSAGES.

1 cup mashed potatoes.
1 cup ground roasted peanuts.
1 egg, well beaten.

1 teaspoons salt.
1 teaspoon pepper.
Salt pork, bacon, or other fat.

Mix the mashed potatoes and seasonings with the ground nuts. Add beaten egg. Form into little cakes or sausages, roll in flour, meal, or Liberty-bread crumbs, and place in greased pan with a small piece of fat or salt pork on each sausage. Bake in a fairly hot oven until brown.

PARCHED CORN-MEAL BISCUITS (WITHOUT WHEAT).

½ cup yellow corn meal. | 1 cup peanut butter. | 1½ cups water.

Put the meal into a shallow pan, heat in the oven until it is a delicate brown, stirring frequently. Mix the peanut butter, water, and salt, and heat. While this mixture is hot, stir in the meal, which also should be hot. Beat thoroughly. The dough should be of such consistency that it can be dropped from a spoon. Bake in small cakes in an ungreased pan. This makes 16 biscuits.

PRANUT MUFFINS.

t cup corn meal.

t cups rye flour.

cup finely ground peanuts.

1 teaspoon salt.

t cups milk.

4 teaspoons baking powder.

Add liquid to dry ingredients and mix well. Bake in well-greased muffin pans.

PEANUT BROWNIES.

(These use no sugar, no white flour, and no shortening.)

2 cup corn sirup.
2 tablespoons strained honey.
1 square chocolate.
2 cup buckwheat flour.
2 teaspoon baking powder.
1 cup chopped peanuts.
2 teaspoon salt.
3 teaspoon vanilla.
4 teaspoon vanilla.

Melt the chocolate and mix with the corn sirup and honey. To this add 1 teaspoon vanilla and the dry ingredients—flour, baking powder, salt, and nuts. Mix well and drop by the spoonful on well-greased pan. Bake in a moderate oven.

PEANUT SALAD WITH BANANAS.

Slice bananas through the center, spread out on lettuce leaves and sprinkle liberally with chopped peanuts; serve with mayonnaise or plain salad dressing.

Peanut candies are always popular. Such sweets can be made at home with no sugar.

PEANUT BRITTLE.

1 cup white corn sirup.
1 tablespoon vinegar.
1 teaspoon vanilla.
1 cup freehly roasted peanuts halved.
1 teaspoon salt.

Cook the corn sirup, vinegar, and salt in a saucepan until a little dropped in cold water forms a soft ball. Put the peanuts and this sirup into an iron skillet and stir until the sirup becomes a golden brown. Remove from the fire and stir in vanilla. Have ready a shallow buttered pan, pour candy in and spread out in a thin sheet. Allow to cool, then remove from pan and crack into pieces.

PEANUT-POP CORN BALLS.

2 quarts freshly popped corn.
2 cups freshly roasted peanuts.
1 cup corn sirup.

1 tablespoon vinegar.

½ teaspoon salt.
1 teaspoon vanilla.

Boil the sirup, vinegar, and salt until the sirup hardens when dropped in cold water. Add vanilla. Pour, while hot, over the pop corn and peanuts, and mix well. When cool enough to handle, grease the hands and form into balls.

PEANUT FLOUR.

The flour or meal, obtained either directly from the peanut roasted or raw, or from the peanut-oil cake, is now on the market in some places, and may be expected to be available in increasing quantities during the coming year. This product is especially well adapted to serve as a part substitute for wheat flour in the making of bread, biscuits, cakes, gems, griddle cakes, and waffles, and in this regard the peanut may be said to have a direct bearing on the war problem of saving wheat. Flour obtained by grinding the roasted or unroasted peanut has the same composition as the peanut kernel. When, however, it has been prepared from the pressed cake, after most of the oil has been removed from the peanut, the flour contains a very high percentage of protein. (See accompanying table.)

Composition of peanut flour and wheat flour.

Flour from—	Water.	Ash.	Fat.	Protein (N × 6.25).	Fiber,	Carbohy- drates.	Calories per pound.
Peanut cake Shelled nuts Wheat	Per cent. 8 4 12	Per cent. 4.8 2.7 .5	Per cent. 8 47 1	Per cent. 48 28 11	Per cent. 4.7 2.5 .2	Per cent. 26.5 13.8 75.3	1,722 2,877 1,647

It will be seen that peanut flour from the peanut pressed cake, which is the usual source of this flour, contains over four times as much protein, eight times as much fat, and nine times as much mineral ingredients as white flour. The amount of flour available depends upon the nature of the peanuts pressed. When shelled nuts are used, the pressed cake is practically all available for flour purposes. When the nuts in the shell are pressed, the oil cake, containing the hulls and red skins, must be purified before the flour can be used for human food. (Pl. XLVI.)

PEANUT BREAD (THREE LOAVES).

21 quarts sifted flour.
2 pound roasted and hulled peanuts.
2 cakes compressed yeast, or
1 cake dry yeast, or
2 cups liquid yeast.

3 tablespoons sugar. 1½ tablespoons salt.

3½ cups lukewarm liquid (water, milk, or equal parts of water and milk).

Break peanuts into small pieces and mix thoroughly with the flour that has been weighed out. When liquid yeast is used its volume must be included in the total liquid required. Measure out liquid yeast, dissolve sugar and salt in the rest of the liquid and add to yeast and set aside for an hour in a warm place. Or, if compressed yeast is used, soften the cake in a little lukewarm liquid and add to the remainder of the liquid in which the sugar and salt are dissolved, and set aside for an hour in a warm place. At the end of the hour add this ferment to the measured flour in the mixing bowl and mix thoroughly. Knead about 15 minutes, until s nooth and elastic. Cover the bowl and let rise 12 hours—usually it has trebled its bulk in this time. If desired, knead down and let rise a second time until very light. Then knead lightly, mold, place in a greased pan, cover, and let rise until two or three time the original bulk. Bake 50 to 60 minutes in a moderately hot oven.

If dry yeast is used, soak one yeast cake in water as usual for 1 hour. Use this in making a sponge with 1½ quarts of sifted flour and the required amount of sugar. In the morning, or when this sponge is light, stir it until smooth, add the salt, and finally the well-blended mixture of three-fourths quart of flour and three-fourths pound of crushed roasted peanut meats. Knead until smooth and elastic, adding flour or water, if required to make a dough of the proper consistency. Cover and allow to rise again until quite light. Divide and mold into loaves, allow to rise until two and a half times the original volume, and bake as directed above.

When bread is made from 1 part of ground peanuts (from shelled nuts) and 3 parts of wheat flour, the product is very rich in protein, fat, and mineral constituents, as may be seen from the following table:



FIG. 1.—PEANUTS FOR MAKING PEANUT BUTTER ARE ROASTED IN REVOLVING DRUMS, THEN DUMPED INTO LARGE TRAYS AND COOLED BY A BLAST OF COLD AIR.

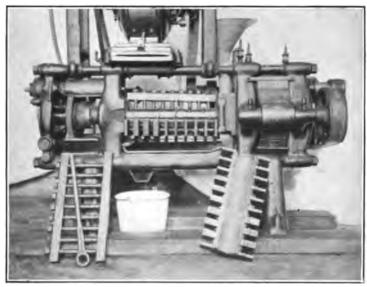


FIG. 2.—EXPELLER USED IN PRESSING PEANUTS AND OTHER OIL-BEARING PRODUCTS.

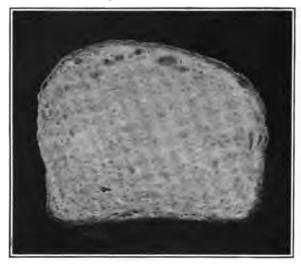


FIG. 1.—BREAD MADE FROM WHEAT FLOUR.

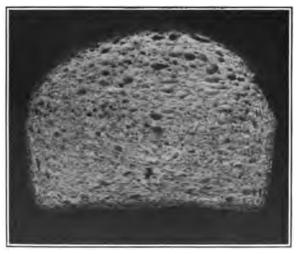


FIG. 2.—BREAD MADE FROM FLOUR CONTAINING 25 PER CENT OF PEANUT MEAL.

Comparison of composition of 25 per cent peanut bread and spring-wheat flour bread.

Composition.	Spring- wheat flour bread.	25 per cent peanut bread.
Total ashper cent	1. 28	1. 6
Salt-free ashdo	. 31	. 62
Fatdo	2.08	9. 44
Fiberdo	. 13	.43
Protein (N×6.25)do	8.74	12. 2
Carbohydratesdo	52.77	41. 2
Calories	1, 223	1,394
Nutritive ratio	6.6	5. 3
Waterper cent	35	35

Such bread is far more nutritious than white flour bread. A study of the protein of the peanuts has shown that it is especially rich in basic amino acids, and therefore resembles the proteins of meat to a large extent. The peanut might therefore prove highly effective in supplementing flour made from wheat whose proteins are deficient in these valuable basic amino acids.

Cakes, especially small cakes, can be made in the usual way, by using almost any combination of wheat flour and peanut flour. Biscuits, of the baking-powder variety, can be made with one-half peanut flour and one-half wheat flour. An even larger proportion of peanut flour and a correspondingly smaller amount of wheat flour can also be used with excellent results.

PEANUT OIL.

Not all the peanuts which this country is now producing are marketed for the purposes already mentioned. There is a limit to the small boy's appetite for roasted peanuts, and his big sister can not eat all the salted peanuts which might be made. Neither are there enough picnics, school lunches, and vegetarian homes to consume the thousands of pounds of peanut butter which could be made from the harvest of our southern fields. Even before the Great War there was an increasing demand for vegetable fats and oils. Furthermore, new uses for vegetable oils were being dis-

covered, and the rising price of butter, coupled with a better understanding of the food value of margarines, had brought about an increase in the consumption of peanut and other vegetable oils. These and other causes, such as the inroads of the boll weevil in portions of the cotton belt, have led to a very surprising increase in the quantity of peanuts produced in America and in the proportion of our annual crop which is pressed for oil.

The production of peanut oil is an old-fashioned industry in Europe, and for years large quantities of African and East Indian nuts have been pressed in France and Holland. In making those grades of oil which are used for food purposes, the French have always used the cold process, and made what is called a virgin oil. Just as in the production of the highest class of olive oil, the better grades of fruit are cold pressed at relatively low pressure, so with peanut oil, the higher qualities of oil are made by cold pressing sound nuts. But the yield of the oil from the cold pressing is, of course, lower than when the nuts are first cooked in order to start the oil, and then subjected to great pressure.

There are, then, two distinct processes for making not only peanut but other vegetable oils: First, the cold process, giving a comparatively low yield of oil, which, however, requires no further treatment to render it satisfactory for table use; and the hot process, which yields more gallons of oil per ton of the peanuts pressed, but an oil with such a strong taste that it must be refined and often also deodorized. (Pl. XLV, fig. 2.)

The refining of crude peanut oil consists simply in treating it with the proper amount of caustic-soda solution to remove what fatty acids may be present, and then separating the soaps thus formed from the unaffected oils. The most common method for deodorizing vegetable oils is to pass a current of superheated steam through them, and carry off by vacuum the vapors arising from the oil.

Oils which have been subjected to these processes lose nearly all of their characteristic flavor, and become so bland that the ordinary individual finds it difficult to distinguish between highly refined olive, cottonseed, peanut, and corn oil. To those who like for their salads, and even for cooking, an oil which carries a taste of the fruit from which it was produced, the virgin oils will be more acceptable. Many people, however, do not like the taste of clive oil, or virgin peanut oil, but prefer for shortening and table uses a bland, nearly tasteless product, and to such the refined peanut oil will appeal more than the virgin grade.

There seems to be some prejudice against peanut oil, based upon the idea that it will not keep well, that it becomes rancid more quickly than other oils. This may be due to the fact that until the last few years practically all of the peanut oil on the domestic market was imported from Europe, such oil being seldom of the first grade, since both France and Holland had a local demand more than equal to the supply of first-pressing oil. Experiments in the laboratory, and the experience of a number of housewives who have used properly made peanut oil, have shown conclusively that, if reasonable care be taken to keep the oil in a cool, dark place, it will not spoil within a year's time.

For the making of salad dressings, either of the ordinary French type or those in which the oil is mixed with other ingredients to form a homogenous emulsion, as in mayonnaise and cooked dressings, peanut oil will be found thoroughly satisfactory. Some grades of peanut oil apparently form a permanent mayonnaise dressing more readily than other salad oils. The difficulty sometimes experienced in making mayonnaise that will stay smooth and uniform is seldom encountered when peanut oil is used, even though the oil is added to the other ingredients without the precaution often necessary with olive oil.

For cooking purposes, such as deep frying, and as a shortening, in cakes and other baked goods where a butter substitute is desired, peanut oil will be found very satisfactory. To Saratoga chips and French-fried potatoes it imparts a slightly nutty flavor which many people think exceptionally fine, and sweet potatoes, cut in cubes, or strips, and cooked to a rich brown in this oil, will be found delicious.

Lard substitutes.—Among those who prefer a solid fat to a liquid oil for cooking purposes the so-called lard substitutes or compounds are becoming increasingly popular. Until very recently, most of the compounds on the American market have been mixtures of cottonseed oil and the harder portion of beef tallow known commercially as oleostearine.

The discovery of a process by which a liquid, such as cottonseed or peanut oil, can be made into a solid fat by treating the oil with hydrogen in the presence of a catalytic agent, usually nickel, has made it possible for manufacturers to produce, at a price which permits them to compete with the older style of compounds, products which contain no animal fat. To this class belong many lard substitutes sold under trade names. While many of these are made from vegetable oils other than peanut, this particular oil is becoming more and more popular with the manufacturers of hydrogenated compounds.

Margarines.—Another class of products which has only recently been manufactured and used in the United States includes the vegetable margarines. These are butter substitutes, manufactured usually from a mixture of coconut and peanut oil which has been ripened in skimmed or partly skimmed milk and then churned in a manner very similar to that used in the production of butter. The true oleomargarines, which have been used in this country for many years, are made in a manner similar to that employed in the manufacture of vegetable or nut margarines, as they are sometimes called, except that instead of coconut oil, neutral lard or oleo oil is used. It has been said that a large proportion of the peanut oil which this country imported before it began producing peanut oil itself was used by the packing houses and other manufacturers of oleomargarine.

Many inquiries as to the relative food value of different animal and vegetable fats are received by the Department of Agriculture. So far as the chemical analysis is concerned they all have practically the same fuel value. Experiments made by the department indicate that all the fats commonly used for edible purposes are digested with practically the same degree of completeness. Very recently it has been discovered that butter contains a growth-determining substance which appears to be absent from the vegetable oils and from the ordinary commercial animal fats. However, the fact that this substance, the exact nature of which has not yet been determined, does not occur in peanut oil need not deter anyone from the use of this valuable oil either for cooking purposes or in butter substitutes, as the ordinary

¹ Office of Home Economics, States Relations Service.

diet of the average American household contains a sufficient quantity of other foods in which this growth-determining material occurs.

SUMMARY.

To sum up, the use of the peanut and peanut products as food may be highly recommended for the following reasons:

- (1) The oil is most valuable as a table oil, equal to other oils in digestibility and food value.
- (2) The shelled nuts are a splendid food, cheap and nutritious.
 - (3) The salted nuts are equally nutritious.
- (4) Peanut butter is highly useful in many ways besides being rich in fat and protein. It is a butter substitute and likewise a substitute for meat.
- (5) The whole shelled nuts as well as parts of nuts are well adapted for use in candies, cakes, cookies, wafers, etc.
- (6) The flour from the peanut itself or from the oil cake is a good part substitute for wheat flour for bread making or for making baking-powder biscuits, cakes, gems, waffles, griddle cakes, etc. Its high content of protein makes it a meat substitute as well.
- (7) The use of such flour in bread making will save an equivalent quantity of wheat for the allies.

HOW THE DAIRY COW BROUGHT PROSPERITY IN THE WAKE OF THE BOLL WEEVIL.

By L. A. HIGGINS,
Dairy Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

FOR MANY YEARS the country surrounding a certain southern Mississippi town was devoted to the raising of cotton. The cultivated land was mostly in small farms owned by white farmers, and most of the labor connected with the production of cotton was done by negro tenants. Each year the farmers as a rule borrowed to the limit on their future cotton crops in proportion to the acreage to be grown, and to meet their obligations they were forced to sell the cotton early in the fall, regardless of price. Forced sales to meet overdue payments, coupled with high rates of interest, kept many of them constantly in debt.

On most farms no live stock was produced. Even the horses and mules used in handling the cotton crop were brought in from Tennessee, Kentucky, and Missouri, and farm and home supplies of all kinds were imported by local dealers and sold to the farmers. From these dealers the farmers purchased wheat flour, corn, meat, lard, canned goods, and vegetables. In the county seat, a town of 5,000 or 6,000 people, from 16 to 20 carloads of bacon were sold in a single year, and much of it went to near-by farms. Only the farmers who obtained a part of their living from their own farms were out of debt and in good financial circumstances.

ARRIVAL OF THE BOLL WEEVIL.

The boll weevil reached the district in 1908 and did serious damage in 1909. The local compress receipts from the cotton crop of 1908 were 31,812 bales, but receipts fell off to 18,178 bales in 1909, to 8,282 bales in 1910, and to 3,168 bales in 1911. Evidently the income from cotton was rapidly approaching the vanishing point. Though very much

discouraged, the farmers continued to try to grow cotton, expecting the boll weevil to leave their section and go elsewhere. The scourge did indeed spread to other sections, but the number of weevils remaining never grew less.

No money could now be borrowed on prospective cotton crops, and the farmers mortgaged their land to the limit. Land values fell to 50 per cent below normal, and credit soon entirely disappeared. The continuous growing of cotton had depleted soil fertility, and there was neither money nor credit with which to purchase commercial fertilizers. The virgin forests of long-leaf vellow pine that had once covered the entire section were now nearly exhausted, and the local lumber mill, with a payroll of \$50,000 a month, closed its doors in 1909. In a near-by village the cotton and woolen mill, that had formerly paid more than \$22,000 a month in wages, ceased to operate in 1910. Everywhere business was at a decline, and the whole region faced financial ruin. Many negro tenants, who knew nothing about the growing of any crop but cotton, left the neighborhood, owing their landlords for two or three years' supplies, and went to sections where the weevil had not yet arrived.

EFFORTS TO ESTABLISH NEW CROPS.

The business men of the community were thoroughly aroused to the situation and began advocating the production of other crops in place of cotton. They appointed trade days, or rally days, to arouse enthusiasm and to encourage the production of various crops. They succeeded in getting the farmers to plant peanuts, but the yield was disappointing and there was no available market for them. Ribbon cane was planted very largely, but each farmer made a different quality of sirup and there was no market, the product being neither standardized nor advertised. Large crops of melons were raised, but the local demand was small and shipments to distant markets sometimes failed to pay freight charges. Sweet potatoes were tried, but with disappointing results. The farmers had not learned how to grade any of these products, neither had they learned what kind of package the market demanded. They knew that cotton must be baled, but thought it unnecessary to pack or grade other products. The merchants knew as little as the farmers about marketing any of these crops, so the production of such cash crops proved to be a failure.

There were a few razorback hogs in the country, but little corn on which to fatten them. The local market could not handle them, and the farmers did not know how to cooperate in carload shipments to distant markets. The need for cooperation had not been felt under the cotton system of farming.

THE FIRST CREAMERY.

There were a few scrub cows, commonly know as "piney-woods" cows, scattered throughout the country. (Plate XLVII, fig. 1.) These cows had been grown on the range and were undoubtedly built for speed rather than the production of milk. While fresh they were milked once a day, but as there was no market for the milk or its products the calves were allowed to do most of the milking.

In 1910 some enterprising citizens began a movement for a local creamery, and eventually one was built at a cost of \$7,000. It was a poorly arranged brick building, and the enterprise failed within a year, leaving a considerable debt. Through the efforts of a few business men the creamery was opened again in 1911, but soon failed a second time.

At this juncture the United States Department of Agriculture and the State agricultural college became interested in the problem. On March 5, 1912, the Dairy Division of the United States Department of Agriculture sent a specialist, who made a thorough study of the local problems. He found everything in a deplorable condition owing to the ravages of the boll weevil. The cotton business was gone, other crops had not been successful, the soil was in poor physical condition, the creamery was a failure, the cattle were a cross between the long-horned mongrel scrub and a poor quality of Jersey, and the people were very badly discouraged. The field man knew other sections where the one-crop system had failed and left the farmers stranded, and he also knew that the dairy cow had generally managed in some way to pull them through, but here was a case more difficult than any he had known before. The creamery had failed, the cows on hand were well nigh worthless, good cows

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could not be purchased elsewhere and brought in because of the cattle tick, and the soils were badly worn.

In spite of the discouraging outlook the field man decided that there was a fighting chance that the dairy cow might yet save the situation. He realized that to win she must be fed, and well fed. Accordingly he encouraged the production of such crops as would build up the soil, keep it clean of weeds, and put it into first-class physical condition. Legumes and corn were the crops best adapted to do these things. Fortunately, they were also the crops best adapted to support the dairy cow.

THE WORK OPPOSED.

The field man met considerable opposition at first. In connection with corn production the field man advocated the construction of silos, though at that time silos were almost unknown in that part of Mississippi. Most of the farmers were skeptical about the feeding of silage. Many of them thought it would be impossible in such a climate to keep green feed put up in that way. They claimed that even if it did not spoil, the cows would not eat it, and that if they did eat it the sour silage would spoil the milk or cause them to give buttermilk. It was also claimed that the silage would ruin the teeth of the cows and that the fermentated juices would make the cows drunk. A few farmers, however, were willing to follow the directions of the field man and the new work was started.

IMPROVEMENT BEGINS.

Although it was April, 1912, before any systematic constructive work was begun, 15 silos were built before the end of the summer and a comparatively large quantity of lespedeza hay was stored for winter feeding. The creamery was remodeled and reopened for business. (Plate XLVIII, fig. 1.) Pastures were gradually improved, and the farmers began to take better care of their cows and calves. An 8-page circular, entitled "Raising the Dairy Calf," was prepared and distributed, and many demonstrations were made to teach better methods of feeding and caring for both cows and calves. A few good bulls were selected, and arrangements

were made to get maximum service from them. This greatly improved the next crop of calves. Farmers were encouraged to weigh and test the milk of each cow once a month, many unprofitable cows were sent to the butcher, and the herds were built up rapidly. (Plate XLVII, fig. 2.)

EDUCATIONAL CAMPAIGN.

A series of strictly dairy meetings was held to help create an interest in the cow and the proper handling of her products. At these meetings models of dairy barns, cow stalls, silos, and milk houses were used in order to make the instruction more definite and concrete. The record work was illustrated by a monthly record sheet, milk scales, and Babcock tester, and all who cared to learn to use them were given an opportunity. Considerable attention was given also to proper feeding according to production, and to the thorough sterilizing of milk utensils.

Some schools took up the work with enthusiasm, and milk testing was done by the pupils. From the milk and butterfat records many problems were obtained and used as supplementary work in arithmetic. Feeding problems also contributed many valuable lessons that made the school work more interesting. The schools assisted greatly in distributing information concerning dairying and helped materially in making the new work a success.

EXAMPLES OF PROGRESS.

A cotton farmer who lived near the county seat was doing well until the boll weevil appeared and worked havoc with his cotton crop. Like most other farmers of the district he continued to try to grow cotton, sinking deeper in debt each year for subsistence for his family, the negro tenants, and the teams. He was a typical cotton farmer and could see no advantage in the new movement toward dairying. He said that cotton had failed, that other crops had not been a success, and that he did not intend to lose more money by milking cows. He said further that so far he had always made his living in easier ways and that he did not propose "to be tied to the hind legs of a cow."

However, other members of his family were not so much opposed to dairying, and finally, about July 1, 1912, they were persuaded to milk the few cows already on the place. The gross returns for July were \$12.36; for August, \$37.67; for September, \$70.35; and for October, \$128.78. By that time 4 or 5 new cows had been bought, and some of the original herd had been sold on account of low production. The next year the farmer milked 20 cows, and the milk alone brought in a total income of \$1,200 after paying for all the feed consumed. Some additional income was obtained from the sale of the calves, and the manure was used to improve the soil. In March, 1913, a good registered Jersey bull and 4 registered cows were bought. One of the cows has since qualified for the register of merit. A silo was built, the farm produces an abundance of legumes, and the cows are fed according to directions. This cotton planter is now one of the loudest boosters for the dairy cow in southern Mississippi and gives her all the credit for having saved his farm.

Another farmer began milking cows in 1913. He, too, had been a cotton farmer, but soon after the weevil came he began to raise beef cattle. Finding that some of his cows were fair milkers, he selected a few of the best and began to ship milk to New Orleans. He gladly accepted the help of the Government field man and followed directions. A silo. dairy barn, and milk house were erected. A daily record was kept of the quantity of feed consumed and the quantity of milk produced, and once a month the field man tested the milk for butterfat. In 1914 the records showed that 5 of the cows were unprofitable, and they were disposed of. During the following year 9 more were considered unworthy and were discarded. In 1915 the average monthly receipts from the sale of milk from 35 cows were \$260, in 1916 the monthly returns from 33 cows were \$350, and during the first half of 1917 the monthly returns from about the same number of cows were \$425. A second silo was built recently, and the dairy herd is now headed by a very fine registered Jersey bull.

Three years ago another farmer of the neighborhood was heavily in debt on account of losses due to the failure of the cotton crop. He was urged to go into dairying, which he did. The first year after he began milking cows he was able



FIG. 1.—THE NATIVE "PINEY WOODS" TYPE. "BUILT FOR SPEED RATHER THAN THE PRODUCTION OF MILK."



FIG. 2.—A HIGH-PRODUCING HERD ON A FARM THAT WAS ALL BUT RUINED BY THE BOLL WEEVIL.



FIG. 1.—THE CREAMERY AS REMODELED.



FIG. 2.—THE VELVET BEAN GROWS LUXURIANTLY IN SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI,

to meet his interest and to make a small payment on the principal, the second year he made another and larger payment, and he expects that the income from the dairy business this year will enable him to make the last payment and free his farm from debt.

Another farmer who had been an ox driver all his life, sold his 8 oxen and built a home for himself and family in the midst of the cut-over district. He began milking cows the latter part of August, 1916. He is now milking 9 cows, from which he sells \$100 worth of milk each month, and he says, "No more oxen for me." These are only a few of the many examples of successful dairying throughout the district.

DAIRYING FOSTERED BY BANKERS.

The local bankers, though skeptical at first, are now supporting the movement. In many cases they are providing the funds for the purchase of better dairy cattle. Several carloads of grade dairy cows have recently been brought in by the creamery, the transaction being financed by the local banks. One of the leading business men of the community recently said that he would rather have the trade of one good dairy farmer than that of 10 average cotton farmers, not that the dairy farmer bought more goods than the cotton farmer, but because the dairy farmer was able to pay cash for what he got, while the cotton farmer had to do business on a long-time credit basis.

THE WORK SPREADS.

Many other creameries have been established in the southern part of the State. Seven of the plants now in operation furnish a stable market for 1,500 patrons. From a small beginning the dairy cow has gradually won her way to prominence in a section where "King Cotton" had swayed his autocratic scepter for years. The banker, the business man, and the farmer now have confidence in one another and they all have confidence in the cow. The dairy cow is doing her part in the building up of worn-out soils, and she is making it possible to cultivate profitably the vast areas of land recently laid waste by the boll weevil. The enriched soil produces large crops of corn and legumes, which support the

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ever-increasing herds of dairy cattle. Lespedeza is native to the soil, and the velvet bean has now become a staple crop. (Plate XLVIII, fig. 2.) With the luxuriant growth of legumes and other forage crops, the long, mild seasons, the cheap production of heifer calves, the cattle tick now practically eradicated, and with excellent transportation facilities, southern Mississippi is rapidly becoming a great dairy center.

SHEEP AND INTENSIVE FARMING.

By F. R. MARSHALL,

In Charge of Sheep and Goat Investigations, Bureau of Animal Industry.

THE SHEEP industry of the United States is in a stage of transition. In most of the western range States the number and size of flocks continue to decline. In the farm States there is a distinct trend toward the more general production of wool and mutton. The net result for the country as a whole in 1917 is reported to have been an increase of 2 per cent over that of 1916.

This movement, though accentuated by war conditions and prices, did not originate with the war. It had its beginning much earlier and may be expected to continue after peace is restored. The full significance of this movement is not generally appreciated. It has been either actively discouraged or misunderstood by certain agricultural authorities who seem to believe that the passing of the sheep industry of the Eastern States in early times finally disposed of the question of the economic place of sheep in intensive farming. It is believed that the analysis of the situation which follows will show that this view is erroneous and unfortunate in respect to the development of opinion as to the best practices for the most effective and economical use of the land in the immediate future and in the period following the war.

TREND OF SHEEP RAISING IN UNITED STATES.

It may seem strange that after more than a century of sheep raising in the United States the relationships of that branch of agriculture are still the subject of discussion, while beef cattle, dairy cattle, and swine have mainly found their permanent locations and profitable extent of development in relation to other lines of agriculture. The divergence of opinion arises mainly from a failure to distinguish between sheep kept chiefly for wool production in newer parts of the world and in the Eastern States prior to 1880, and the other

type of sheep husbandry that regards mutton and lamb production coequally with wool, exemplified on the farms of Great Britain.

The frequently repeated statement that the decline of farm sheep raising, that occurred decades ago, is proof that the industry can not have a place in modern intensive farming has mainly gone unchallenged. The fact is that there is very little resemblance between the former business of growing wool and the present rapidly developing business of keeping sheep for the economical production of meat as well as wool. The type of sheep raising now engaging the interest of farmers is essentially new. It has never been tested in a large way in the United States and has never been abandoned anywhere when once established.

Federal statistics show a decline of 8 per cent in the number of sheep kept in the United States between 1910 and 1917. To a considerable extent this decline is due to the abandonment of keeping wethers. When wool was the most important product, large numbers of wethers were kept, sometimes until 4 or 5 years old. With higher market values for lambs, wethers have been largely discarded and ewes put in their places. The ewes produce practically the same quantity of wool as the wethers and a crop of lambs each year. equal to about 80 per cent of their number. The decrease in meat production therefore has not been so great as might be supposed. The number of sheep (including lambs) slaughtered in 1915 was 14 per cent less than in 1914, and in 1916 the number was 8 per cent less than in 1915. This was due to the fact that the settlement of the range had made it necessary for many western sheep owners to dispose of their flocks, which swelled market receipts for a time, but diminished the number of ewes to produce lambs later on.

In the former period of the farm rearing of sheep mainly for their wool, mutton was very lightly esteemed as an article of diet. Lamb, as we now know it, was not offered for sale. Other meats were abundant, cheaply produced and retailed at low price. The general and continuing upward trend of beef and pork values diverted attention to the then cheaper mutton and lamb. When once understood, these meats, particularly lamb, came into favor and, though now selling higher than other meats, are in strong

demand because of their taste and flavor and also because of the special economy of their use by small families and by city residents in general, who compose the majority of the patrons of our butcher shops and markets. This condition, in conjunction with the peculiar economy in the production of lamb, gives to the sheep as a meat-producing animal an assured position in the more nearly stable plan of operations rapidly being adopted on American farms. In this, as in the cattle industry, the farmer's security is due to the removal of danger of unequal competition of cheaper lands in Western States. The lessened difference in acreage value of range and farm lands and the much greater feedproducing capacity of the latter, puts the business of livestock production on a basis where the margin of profits depends mainly upon the skill and business ability of the producer.

FARM PRODUCTION OF WOOL.

Students of world wool-trade conditions are convinced that future wool supplies must come quite largely from farm flocks. At present the bulk of the world's wool supply comes from sheep kept on the agricultural frontiers. The flocks of Australia and South Africa are maintained primarily for wool production. The fine-wool type of sheep has been the forerunner of agriculture in the drier and in the new areas of all countries. The mutton sheep comes in at the other end of the gamut as a necessary instrument in highly intensive and self-supporting agriculture. In our own range States, in New Zealand, and in South America the better parts of the pastoral areas are now devoted to the production of both wool and mutton from what is broadly called the "crossbred" type of sheep.

The range areas of the United States, Australia, and South America have steadily been encroached upon by closer settlement and use of the lands for grain growing. While these same lands, or such of them as are found continuously profitable for farming purposes, will eventually evolve into a system of raising live stock, there will be a long interval of lessened production of meat and wool. This might be compensated for by the production of still newer areas, but the primitive conditions still existing in the unproductive parts of Asia and the equatorial regions at best give no promise of

the addition of new wool-yielding areas for a very long time. Since the supplies can not be maintained from new sources, the only opportunity remains in increasing the output of present sources of supply. A smaller and diminishing margin between supply and consumption of wool seems inevitable. It is not possible to see how this tendency can fail to cause a new level of values for wool unless civilian consumption is very greatly curtailed. Since very little of the actual requirements for wool can be satisfied with substitutes the only alternative lies in the maintenance of a level of values to justify an increase in wool production in present range or farm sections.

As was suggested, the range product has been declining in all countries except South Africa and New Zealand. A portion of this decline in range production in the United States may be offset by improved methods and the revision of State or National attitudes on public land policies, but it is probable that much more of the wholly unimproved lands now used for grazing will be settled before a condition is reached under which each type of land is employed in the most economical way. The strong probability of an early increase of supplies of wool from the present principal sources indicates the continuing importance of wool as a source of income from flocks previously kept for meat production. The British breeds of sheep amply demonstrate the possibility of obtaining large yields of wool and meat from the same animals, and with both commodities in strong demand the commercial flocks of the future will develop still further upon a wool and mutton basis.

The United States is still a large importer of wool. Her meat consumption, in normal times, equals production. Her farms contain much unproductive land and the earlier rush westward left many large areas undeveloped. It seems certain that the new order of affairs will result in the increased production of live stock, particularly sheep, on the larger areas of idle lands in the Appalachian, Great Lakes, and South Atlantic regions. The still more intensive use of land in farms, and effort to secure the most economical use of every acre, every facility, and all available labor, will necessitate the general inclusion of sheep in our system of mixed farming and live-stock production.

ECONOMIC PHASES OF SHEEP RAISING.

In addition to the great need of increased production of meat and wool and the development resulting from the operation of higher values, the raising of sheep has a new appeal to older farming areas as a result of alterations in feed values and the scarcity of farm labor. factor in determining the cost of other animal products is the value of grain or mill feeds. Pasturage and roughage are important, but both beef and pork require a very considerable use of concentrated feeds for the finished animal that is most profitable when sold for slaughter. The most valuable carcasses of lamb and mutton require a very much smaller proportion of fat and therefore a smaller use of grains than is required in other meat animals. In the case of lamb, which is much more popular than mutton, a majority of the animals are marketed at the time of weaning and without having had any feed other than milk of their dams and a slight amount of grazing. The lambs raised in areas incapable of producing a good milk flow in the ewes, and which therefore go to fattening vards, consume considerable grain, but their finish is largely produced from hay and other roughages of comparatively lower value.

With breeding ewes, as with mature females of other classes of live stock, the free use of grain is not needed when good roughages are furnished. Fleeces of good weight and quality can be produced without the use of concentrated feeds.

The other prominent economic advantage of sheep raising is in the comparatively small demand it makes upon farm labor. The labor cost per dollar's worth of wool or lambs is lower than in any other farm-animal product. This factor had a noticeable effect in 1917 upon farmers' attitude toward sheep raising and may be expected to be more appreciated in the future. In the past injury has been done by advocating sheep raising on the ground that no labor or attention is needed and farms are cleared of weeds. So far as their appetite for weeds is concerned, the sheep may be regarded to some extent as scavengers. They will eat most weeds, and on any farm will greatly reduce the amount of hand labor needed to hold in check the areas of pasture and grain fields. Many rougher, permanent grass pastures that

require mowing can be kept clean by the use of sheep, while at the same time the cattle-carrying capacity of the pasture is increased. It is a mistake, however, to encourage or advocate the raising of sheep by people whose main interest is in weed control. While the labor required by sheep raising is continuous, it is not heavy, and, if properly supervised and made interesting by financial return, can well be performed by boys incapable of other kinds of farm labor. Constant attention and careful observation are necessary to maintain thrift in flecks of practical commercial size.

One competent, experienced man can care for from 300 to 500 ewes during winter. Extra help will be needed at lambing and shearing time, but unless the forage rotation plan is followed, the full time of the shepherd will not be needed for the flock in summer.

OBSTACLES TO EXPANSION.

The first and greatest obstacle to an adequate increase in the size and number of farm flocks has been removed in the restoration of equal competition with other areas and in the improved prospect of continued higher values for wool and lambs. Owners of farms can now safely develop flocks to the size suggested by the character of their land, existing marketing facilities, and available labor without hindrance to logical development such as formerly existed in disproportionate prices for different classes of animals and other farm products.

A second obstacle to a quick increase lies in the fact that comparatively few farmers are as well qualified to care for sheep as for other classes of stock. The management of mutton sheep does not differ altogether from that of the former wool flocks, but the majority of farmers have had no experience in caring for sheep. The systems of management for quickest returns, continued health, and maximum profits under different types of farm conditions are not well understood, nor have they been determined by experiment stations in any such way as has been done for other classes of stock.

This obstacle is a temporary one. The needs and habits of sheep differ widely from those of horses, cattle, and swine, but present no problems that will not be met by interested

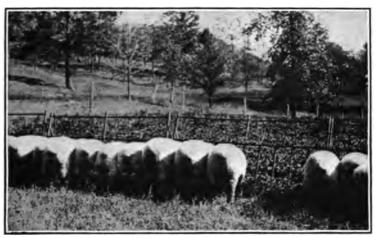


FIG. 1.—A BRITISH METHOD OF UTILIZING FORAGE WITHOUT WASTE AND FURNISHING CHEAP FEED WITHOUT THE USE OF LABOR FOR HARVESTING.

The fence is moved along as the sheep consume the forage.



FIG. 2.—FARM-RAISED LAMBS GRAZING ON SOY BEANS IN JUNE.

The use of forages obviates danger of infection with parasites common on permanent pasture and produces a good market finish.





TYPES OF PASTURE LANDS WELL ADAPTED TO SHEEP RAISING, OF WHICH SEVERAL MILLION ACRES IN THE UNITED STATES ARE NOW IDLE.

study and observation supported by satisfactory returns. The boys' sheep clubs now being formed are valuable largely for the opportunity furnished to interest prospective farmers and give them experience with sheep which, though on a small scale, will teach the essential points of sheep management and contribute materially in overcoming the present lack of qualified shepherds.

The dog question is still a serious hindrance to sheep raising in most farming localities. The probability of sheep being killed by dogs is sufficiently great to keep many people out of the business. Public sentiment as to the necessity of more adequate control of dogs for many reasons is rapidly changing. The prospective sheep raisers, however, are not assured of protection until such sentiment results in the enactment and the enforcement of suitable laws. States enacted improved legislation in 1917 and a number of other States are likely to take similar action. experience of the States having had most experience in this matter emphasizes the need of plain and ample provisions for full enforcement of the laws enacted. Readily available officers are necessary to appraise and secure early compensation for damage done. Such compensation can not be adequate or timely where payments can be made only from local collections for dog licenses. It was not the fault of the losing farmer that lack of vigorous enforcement of the law resulted in too low a condition of the funds to do the work intended. Compensation arrangements are a secondary though essential feature of this kind of legislation. The first need, and one calling for a clear assignment of duties to available and efficient officers, is for public education through the collection of license fees or taxes and the prevention of dogs from running at large and unattended where sheep are kept.

POSSIBILITIES OF SHEEP RAISING IN INTENSIVE FARMING.

An indication of the probable development of sheep raising may be obtained from a study of the data concerning British agriculture and live stock. In many respects the agricultural conditions of the fourteen Northeastern States of this country are comparable with those of Great Britain. Both areas contain a large amount of nonarable land and

have large populations and manufacturing industries. The fact that the British agriculture is much older and has developed under conditions of competition with other countries insures that each of its branches has a sound economic basis.

It seems clear that the much denser sheep population of Great Britain is not obtained at the expense of other live stock, though swine are relatively less important than in the area shown for the United States. The advantage is due to more complete utilization of nonarable land and particularly to more intensive use of live stock on the cultivated lands. On British farms of from 50 to 300 acres there are 574 sheep per 1,000 acres and 820 per 1,000 acres of land on farms that are above 300 acres. Similar data are not obtainable for United States farms. These larger British farms are not due to inclusion of poorer or rougher land, as the large farms have the smaller proportion of nonarable land.

Great Britain has 384 sheep for each 100 cattle, while the United States has 73 and the fourteen States referred to have 59 sheep to 100 cattle.

AIDS TO EARLY INCREASE IN FARM SHEEP RAISING.

The continued prevalence of high wool and meat values will place the farm sheep business in a new light. The demand for ewes for farm flocks was not met fully in 1917 and a much larger proportion of ewe lambs was retained by owners for breeding purposes than has ever been known. This has been true in the East; and in the West, particularly, in Utah and Idaho, large numbers of ewes have been sold from range flocks to be placed upon farms.

Improved legislation in respect to dogs will also greatly aid the expansion of the business. Amount and character of available hired farm help has already caused many farmers to substitute sheep raising for some of their lines of production for which more and harder labor was needed.

The necessity of utilizing the many million acres of land not now in farms will cause a great increase in the number of sheep kept. There are large bodies of such land in all the States traversed by the Appalachian Mountains. Much of the cut-over timber lands of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota are suitable for sheep, though development of the business can not take place at a more rapid rate than the clearing of the land for the production of winter feed. In some parts land now cleared will be more serviceable for the raising of winter stock feed than under its present use for raising crops to be shipped out.

The southern cut-over lands seem more likely to be used for some time, so far as sheep are concerned, in large areas under a semiranching system of management.

There is still need of publicity and educational work regarding the safety of engaging in sheep raising. The long-continued circulation of misleading ideas as to the meaning of the history of the business in this country and as to the true economic place of sheep can not be quickly overcome. Education and demonstration respecting methods of feeding and caring for sheep are widely called for. To a small extent this is being supplied by agricultural extension agencies. In 1917 ten specialists in sheep husbandry commenced work in twelve States under cooperative arrangements between the Department of Agriculture and the States in which the work is done.

Two active, nonprofit-making organizations, supported by private funds, commenced work in 1917 and give large promise of extending and rendering more effective some phases of the work not so readily served by State and Federal agencies.

There is particular need of more general demonstration and experimental work in sheep husbandry by the State agricultural experiment stations. With but one or two exceptions no data are obtainable from that source in regard to economical methods of growing lambs for market or in regard to wool production, although considerable valuable work has been done in studying economical rations for winter ewes and for fattening lambs. In the main the business of finishing purchased lambs probably will continue to decline. The prospects of a new and large sheep husbandry are chiefly along the line of producing lambs and wool—the lambs to be sold before reaching their sixth month. The greatest need of practical experimental work is not likely to be during the period of war prices but during the time of readjustment of farming to new conditions which will follow the close of the war.

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A larger development of the farm sheep industry than that reported for 1917 is to be expected. The continued development of this phase of animal husbandry will contribute materially to the food and clothing supplies. It will also add stability to our systems of farming and play an important part in the more complete utilization of our agricultural resources.

TEAMWORK BETWEEN THE FARMER AND HIS AGENT.

By C. E. BASSETT,

Specialist in Cooperative Organization, Bureau of Markets.

IT IS doubtful whether any class of men offering service to the farmers has been as generally and as severely condemned as has the commission merchant—the middleman—who accepts the surplus products of the farm on consignment and sells for a commission charge. While many striking cases have proved that, too often, there have been betrayals of trust on the part of city dealers to whom farm products have been consigned, it is doubtful if it can be demonstrated that all the shortcomings of the commission business as now conducted are the fault of the commission merchant.

In commission transactions the farmer who makes the shipment is the principal and the commission merchant is his agent in an implied contract based upon the ordinary charges and practices of the commission business. In all contracts each party has certain rights and certain duties, and unless one of the parties performs all of his duties he has no right to blame the other party for a failure to secure the best results. The failure on the part of both parties to post themselves as to their respective duties leads to most of the trouble in this regard.

CHOOSE FOR SHIPMENT PRODUCTS THAT WILL SHIP.

In his early farming experience the writer made frequent use of commission merchants as a medium for marketing farm products which could not be disposed of to local buyers. Many of these consignment deals were very disappointing, and it was easy to drop into the ranks of those who condemn before they investigate.

Among the varieties of berries produced on our farm were a few that were of such attractive appearance and appetizing flavor that it was natural to believe that shipment of

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such fruit to the city market ought to be profitable. Imagine our surprise and indignation when our first shipments of these home-tested and approved varieties brought us small returns. Moreover, we were told on the account of sales that such berries were "undesirable," and "soft and leaking."

The feeling that the transaction was not a fair one led to an investigation. Another fine shipment was made and the consignor arranged to be present, though unknown, when the sale was made. He was able to identify his shipment in the city market by the stencil number on each crate, but was astonished to learn that, however fine these berries might be when eaten fresh from the field, they were so soft and tender, that they could not reach the market in attractive condition under the rough handling of quick transportation. The lesson was to grow varieties that not only were good, but that would carry. The fault in this case was our own, rather than that of the salesman, and what he saw on the city market opened the eyes of the writer to the other side of this method of marketing.

HOME MARKET VS. CITY MARKET.

Farmers generally believe that it is best to sell at home when a fair price can be obtained, and they draw that conclusion because they compare home sales with returns received for shipments made on consignment. However sound the policy may be to sell at home when a fair price can be secured, no two plans of marketing are fairly compared unless they are practiced upon exactly the same grade of products, with other conditions fairly equal.

When the farmer comes on his home market with a load of produce and meets a large number of eager bidders, he is inclined to sell. One of the reasons why there are so many bidders may be the attractive appearance and high quality of the product, but the interest of the buyers is usually a sure indication that the market is strong; that is, that the bidders have reasonable assurances that if they buy they can sell again at a profit. Under such a condition the farmer is induced to sell. The next time the farmer appears on the market with a load of produce, the local buyers may show no interest and refuse to make any offer. This may be because the produce is not of good quality,

but as a rule it is a very good indication that the city markets are "off" and that the local dealers know that they would face a loss if they were to pay any price that the farmer would consider. With no local market, the farmer may be forced to consign his produce to a city commission house. His possibly unattractive goods placed on an already overstocked and weak market may bring unsatisfactory returns, no matter how faithfully the commission merchant may work to secure top prices and render an accurate and honest return for the consignment. It is often upon such experiences as these that the grower-shipper bases the conclusion that there are no honest dealers in cities, or that, if there be such, they are hard to find.

"LAST RESORT" SHIPMENTS.

Too often the commission consignment business is used as a last resort, and products, undesirable either because of their low grade or because of the weak market, are dumped on the commission merchant. At such times his inability to get the same price for low-grade products that others may secure for products of high grade may be taken as an evidence of his lack of business ability or his general dishonesty, or both. A fair test of the relative merits of the two ways of marketing can be obtained only by giving to both the home dealer and the commission merchant equal amounts of products of the same grade at the same time.

Most of the farm produce sent to market on consignment is shipped without any previous notice to the commission merchant and he has no opportunity to prepare for its reception and sale. Nor are shipments made regularly, so as to enable the agent to build up a profitable demand for the products of the shipper. Business like this, which is spasmodic, careless, or otherwise not dependable, is not profitable.

AVOID COMPETING WITH YOURSELF.

One grower who took a great deal of care with his pack had created a sharp demand for his products and his brand was sought by discriminating buyers. Since he feared that one commission merchant would not be able to dispose of his entire shipment to advantage, he divided his daily shipment among four commission men in the same town. Not being

satisfied with the returns, he visited the city and discovered that the four dealers to whom he was shipping were located not only on the same street, but in the same block, and two of them in the same storeroom. The shipper's fancy-packed products were on sale at four places, and buyers were forcing the four dealers to compete, with a resultant cut in prices. The farmer changed his method, shipped all of this product to one agent who could fix a fancy price for this fancy pack, and there was no competition to destroy his market.

SUGGESTIONS FOR SHIPPERS.

For those who contemplate the use of commission men as marketing agents, the following suggestions are offered:

- 1. Know your agent. Select one who has a reputation backed by experience, an advantageous location, and competent help. A personal visit will help the farmer in deciding these points. Have a clear understanding as to charges to be made for services—selling, cartage, storage, repacking, etc. Avoid unknown firms that make unreasonable promises as to what they will do with shipments. Among so many dealers it is not surprising that some get into the business who secure trade through fraudulent representations and who drop out of sight as soon as a "clean-up" has been effected.
- 2. Know your market. From your carefully selected agent learn the needs of the market, the most desirable varieties to raise, proper containers in which to pack and ship, style of pack most desired, the use of labels or brands, proper amounts and time of shipment, and local preferences, such as that for white eggs in Chicago and for brown eggs in Boston. Try to cater to existing market demands, rather than to force your own ideas as to what the trade ought to consume.
- 3. Make regular shipments. Instead of making the city commission district the dumping ground for what your local dealers will not buy, keep your city agent regularly supplied with what his trade will take, thereby helping him stabilize the business in which you are both concerned.
- 4. Keep each other informed. Early in the shipping season the farmer should give his agent a careful estimate of what may be expected, and no material changes in the

quantity of the regular shipment should be made unless a prompt notice is given the agent, in order that he may secure purchasers in case of increase or arrange to care for his regular customers if shipments will not meet requirements. Successful shippers make frequent use of the telegraph or long-distance telephone to keep agents posted as to changes in shipments. The agent should also be expected to keep the shipper informed as to any changes in the requirements of the market.

5. Avoid frequent changes in agents. Some shippers prefer to divide their shipments each day among numerous commission merchants in the same market. While it may be wise under certain conditions to check one agent by the sales of another, the most successful consignor seems to be the one who selects an agent with great care and then sticks to him, cooperating with him in every possible way and carefully scrutinizing all settlements. The honest agent is glad to do his part in such "teamwork" and welcomes the most exacting examination of his methods.

TEAMWORK ESSENTIAL TO SUCCESS.

As already indicated, marketing farm products through the commission house is a partnership affair, and no partnership can be a complete success unless each partner does his best and is willing to make it possible for the other to work to the best advantage. Teamwork always counts, and never more than in the relation of principal and agent, as it exists between the farmer and his commission man.

GROWTH OF THE BEEF-CATTLE INDUSTRY IN THE SOUTH.

By F. W. FARLEY,

Animal Husbandry Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

GROWING good beef cattle is a new industry in the South, but one that has grown so rapidly in the last few years that it is now among the leading phases of southern agriculture. Ten years ago, when cotton was the principal crop, very little attention was given to the improvement of beef-cattle herds, although the actual number of these cattle was greater than at present. The interest in the beef-cattle business in the South that took root so suddenly was due to two principal factors, the first and most important of which was the invasion of the cotton boll weevil, and the second the changed conditions in the corn belt and on the western ranges.

Statistics show that there was a gradual decrease in all beef animals in the cotton belt from 1900 to 1914, after which there was a gradual increase to 1917. However, these figures do not indicate the actual development that has come about, since the greatest improvement has been made in quality rather than in numbers. When cotton reigned supreme, farmers kept their steers until they were 5, 6, and even 8 years old before marketing them. This practice gradually changed as interest in beef-cattle raising became more intense, farmers selling their cattle at an earlier age from year to year until now very few are kept beyond three years. At the same time more attention has been given to marketing, and as a result a minimum number of cattle are kept other than the breeding stock.

The number of cattle from the State of Mississippi sold on the St. Louis stockyards in 1908 was 8,000, while in 1916 it had risen to 162,000. Even though these figures represent only one State in which the increase was probably greater there than in some of the others, they indicate that the South is producing more beef animals now than it has

ever produced before. Also, since the larger part of these sales were of steers, the estimates of the number of cattle in the South in the last few years has included more cows and fewer 4-, 5-, and 6-year-old steers in proportion than in previous years, thereby showing but a small increase in numbers, though the breeding capacity and actual production have become much greater. These figures have another significance which is gratifying, in that the cattle shipped out were largely scrubs, whereas pure-bred bulls and good breeding cows were being shipped in at the same time to take their place on the farms.

Estimated number of beef cattle in eleven cotton-belt States from 1900 to 1917.

[From census and Department of Agriculture reports.]

Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.
1900 ¹	14, 533, 386 12, 203, 561 11, 701, 000	1915 1916	10, 666, 000 10, 668, 000 11, 259, 000

1 Census.

In order to get a clear idea of the growth of the beefcattle industry in the South, several factors must be taken into consideration, the most important of which are the progress of tick eradication, the number of pure-bred bulls and cows brought in, the number of silos and barns built, the increased number of improved pastures and farms, and the application of better methods of feeding and marketing.

The year 1909 really marked the beginning of the beefcattle business on a practicable basis in the South.

FORMER CONDITIONS.

Before the Civil War southern slaveholders took a great deal of pride in having a few well-bred cattle of the Devon and Shorthorn breeds on their plantations, and the blood of these cattle is still found in the native southern herds in a few rich-red, big-framed cows.

Texas has been a cattle-breeding ground for three-quarters of a century or more, corn-belt feeders having gone there

for steers as early as the forties; however, the only cattle produced there then were the Texas "longhorns." About thirty years ago the ranchmen began to bring in pure-bred bulls, mostly Shorthorns and Herefords, with which to grade up their herds. To-day the Texas "longhorn" is almost extinct, and while most of the large ranches have been cut up into smaller ranches and farms, they are stocked with high-grade and pure-bred Hereford herds on a Shorthorn foundation, and there is a large annual shipment of these cattle to other States for breeding purposes and to supply feed lots. A few range herds of Angus cattle are found, and on the ranches along the Gulf coast Brahman cattle are quite numerous.

In the States of Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina, especially where cotton was the principal crop, little thought was given to intelligent selection and breeding of beef cattle. The use of scrub bulls was so general and inbreeding so intense that the native mongrel cattle with very few exceptions were very inferior and no improvement was made until the appearance of the cotton boll weevil, which forced the farmers into the cattle business. These States have always offered the same advantages for beef-cattle production that they offer at the present time, but so long as the landlords of the cotton plantations could produce cotton on a large scale with cheap farm labor and very little personal supervision, it furnished a very tempting and easy means of making money. Although the ravages of the boll weevil took the vitals out of the single-crop system thousands of farmers still continued to plant cotton, and until they actually faced bankruptcy refused to abandon a system that had given them so many years of comparative ease.

THE BOLL-WEEVIL INVASION.

The boll weevil, which invaded Texas in 1892, made its appearance in Louisiana in 1903 and gradually spread across the State, reaching Mississippi in 1907. Within three years it had invaded two-thirds of that State and had made its way into southwestern Alabama. In 1914 the weevil-infested territory included the eastern half of Texas, the southeastern part of Oklahoma, the southern half of Arkan-

sas, the whole of Louisiana and Mississippi, and the southwestern half of Alabama. By 1917 the infested territory had increased so as to include also the whole of Alabama, two-thirds of Georgia, and northern Florida.

It was during the period of 1909-1914 that the great depression came. Louisiana and Mississippi being hit harder than any of the other infested States. Cotton had always been readily accepted as collateral, and banks made the practice of lending thousands of dollars annually on that These loans were safe so long as the cotton crop was a certainty, but at this time farmers had suffered several years of crop failure, due to the destructive work of the weevil. It was necessary for them to continue to borrow money. however, in order to operate, and the bankers continued to advance them loans from year to year thinking that the next would be a good crop year and that they could then collect past-due loans. The situation grew worse, however, and as a result hundreds of banks failed. In the State of Mississippi the boll weevil drove one-fourth of the banks into bankruptcy. Cotton farmers were simply forced out of business, cotton gins became idle, and plantation after plantation was left uncultivated. Land values dropped so suddenly that in 1909 plantations in Louisiana which had been valued at \$40 and \$50 an acre only a year or so before could be bought for \$5 to \$10 an acre. This same condition existed in Mississippi in 1913 and 1914. Of necessity farmers began to look for some new industry that would fit into their farm operations and take up the lost motion. They first took up trucking, but that enterprise did not prove to be profitable as a substitute for cotton because only a few sections were suitable for conducting operations on a large scale.

It was then that the South's mild climate, wonderful carrying capacity of pasture for eight or nine months a year, heavy yields of the different legumes, large yield of byproducts from cotton seed, and large yields of grain most forcefully suggested cattle raising. There were a few farmers who had foreseen the critical situation at the outset and had got in on the ground floor of the cattle business by stocking their farms with breeding cows and good bulls. These men suffered least from the boll-weevil invasion because they were

prepared and ready to meet the new conditions when they came. Their work along constructive lines had much to do with the establishment of the beef-cattle industry of the South.

CHANGE OF CONDITIONS IN CORN BELT AND ON WESTERN RANGES.

The slump in prices of cattle during the early nineties, together with a rapid advance in land values in the Middle West, induced farmers throughout this section to cut down the size of their herds and convert their pastures into corn and wheat fields, thereby forcing cattle feeders to go to the western ranges for steers to fill their feed lots. elapse of only a few years, however, the seriousness of this situation became evident. The breeding herds of beef cattle on the western ranges had gradually diminished owing to settlement, thus further reducing the supply of steers for the corn-belt feed lots. This in turn made it necessary for the cattle feeders to look for other sources from which to obtain cattle if they were to maintain their status in the feeding business. They directed their attention toward the South as a possible breeding ground, and although they were skeptical as to the ability of the South to supply them with cattle, their interest having been turned in that direction, it no doubt had a marked influence on the rapid development of the industry that has come about.

BEEF-CATTLE EXPERIMENTAL WORK.

In 1904 the Bureau of Animal Industry, in cooperation with the Alabama Experiment Station, inaugurated a series of extensive beef-cattle experiments in Alabama for the purpose of working out the most profitable methods of feeding and handling beef cattle in that section of the South. This work was carried on until 1913, after which it was transferred to Mississippi, where it was continued in cooperation with the experiment station of that State, one experiment being carried on at Canton in the brown-loam section and another at Abbott in the black-prairie section. The work is still in progress, and during the present year the work at Abbott was transferred to Collins, in the cut-over pine section.

In 1913 beef-cattle experimental work similar to that

conducted in Alabama and Mississippi was inaugurated in the mountainous section of North Carolina by the Bureau of Animal Industry in cooperation with the North Carolina Experiment Station. In this case the object is to determine the most profitable lines to follow in handling beef cattle in the mountains of that and adjoining States. This work also is still in progress.

The results of all the above work that has been completed have been published in United States Department of Agriculture and State bulletins and distributed to farmers and cattlemen throughout the South. In addition beefcattle specialists of the Southern States are using the results in their work and are having success in introducing them into beef-cattle operations.

WORK OF EXTENSION FORCES.

As soon as the boll weevil had thoroughly demonstrated that cotton would perhaps never again be safe as an exclusive crop, the farmers were in a frame of mind not only to receive but to seek advice and information on the cattle business and to put this advice into execution. The extension forces of the United States Department of Agriculture and the State colleges had been active in continually agitating this very sensible and safe phase of diversification and soil building; persistently urging and demonstrating the production of feed crops and pastures and the introduction of better breeding stock, thus revealing the possibilities of the beef-cattle industry, and teaching the people by practical demonstrations the proper methods of feeding and handling beef cattle. This work elicited a hearty response. The demand for information became so great that the regular extension forces could not comply with all the requests.

In 1914 a special appropriation was made with which the Animal Husbandry Division of the Bureau of Animal Industry placed beef-cattle specialists in the Southern States to work in tick-free areas in cooperation with the extension forces and the county agents. The services and advice of these specialists were given to farmers on the improvement of pastures for beef cattle, the selection and bringing in of pure-bred bulls, the construction of beef-

cattle sheds and barns, the most economical methods of feeding cattle for market, the proper selection and culling of breeding herds, the forming of live-stock associations, and any other work pertaining to the promotion of the beefcattle industry.

The following summary shows the total results of work done by the specialists and county agents along beef-cattle lines throughout the period July 1, 1914 to July 1, 1917.

Results of work done by beef-cattle specialists and county agents in beef-cattle extension in the South (fiscal years 1915, 1916, and 1917).

Nature of work.		1916	1917
Pure-bred bulls brought in	2, 647	2, 552	6, 482
Pure-bred cows brought in	3,972	3,829	9,750
Grade breeding and feeding cattle brought in	7,372	10, 237	22, 588
Live-stock associations organized	35	21	25
Silos constructed	76	217	113
Forage crop demonstrations for beef cattle cenducted	172	112	42
Cattle-feeding demonstrations conducted	80	181	208
Number of cattle fed in demonstrations	9,068	11, 284	5, 517
Cooperative sales of fat cattle belonging to small feeders		7	15
Farmers' meetings addressed on beef-cattle subjects	250	584	539
Number of farmers addressed at meetings	19,000	62, 454	58,786
Number of farmers given specific advice on beef-cattle operations	2, 514	3, 552	5, 308
Demonstrations given of roping, castration, dehorning, and vac-			
cinating cattle		118	207

This summary includes only the personal services rendered and does not include results secured in an indirect way. For instance, in many cases where a farmer was induced to buy a pure-bred bull and castrate his scrub, to build a barn or silo, to plant a permanent pasture, to build a dehorning chute and dehorn his cattle, or to conduct a cattle-feeding demonstration, it often resulted in several farmers in the neighborhood doing the same things.

CATTLE-FEEDING DEMONSTRATIONS.

One of the more important things that the southern cattlemen yet had to learn after they had started in the beef-cattle business was to feed and finish their cattle for market instead of selling them in a thin condition. The cattle-feeding demonstrations conducted by the beef-cattle specialists have proved to be one of the most effective and practical agencies in bringing about a change in this practice. As a result of these demonstrations many farmers who otherwise hesitated to venture into a locally untried industry have become convinced that it is more profitable to finish their cattle on feeds that can be grown on their own farms, thereby returning these feeds back to their farms in the form of manure, than to sell them thin. They have learned that even the native cattle can be fattened on cottonseed meal or velvet beans, together with a roughage, and that they will bring a much better price on the market than they had been accustomed to getting. In these cattle-feeding demonstrations weights and records were kept by the specialist or county agent and at the conclusion of the demonstration farmers' meetings were held on the farm whereby farmers had the opportunity of seeing the cattle and studying the results obtained.

The following table gives the data obtained from four demonstrations conducted in Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi in 1916, which are illustrations of numerous other demonstrations of like kind.

Record of feeding demonstrations in Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi (1916).

Detail of work.	Steer feeding, Hart	Calf feedin County		Steer feeding, Hinds
	County, Ga.	Lot 1.	Lot 2.	County, Miss.
Number of cattle	39	42	30	84
Days fed	91	150	120	120
A verage initial weightpounds	647	372	540	646
A verage final weightdo	956	585	711	897
A verage total gaindo	309	213	171	251
A verage daily gaindo	3.4	1.42	1.42	1.90
A verage daily ration (full feed):				
Cottonseed mealdo	6.25	2.75	8. 12	3.76
Shelled corn,do		2.00	1.00	
Cracked corndo				2.44
Corn silagedo	33. 25	17.00	22.00	41.00
Corn stoverdo	2.50			
Mixed haydodo	(e)	2.00	5.00	4.00
Peavine havdo		1.50	2.00	
Cost of feed per hundredweight of gain	\$4.85	\$7.87	\$8.77	\$8,45
Iditial cost per hundredweight	\$5.34	\$5.60	\$5.60	\$4.50
Selling price per hundredweight	\$7.86	\$7.00	\$7. 25	\$7.85
A verage profit per head	\$27. 21	\$3.36	\$ 6. 19	\$7.70

c Velvet-bean pasture for 164 days charged at \$16.

The results of beef-cattle extension work are brought out more forcefully through the fact that at least 75 per cent of the beef cattlemen of the South are now using pure-bred bulls, 50 per cent have silos and improved pastures on their farms, and 30 per cent finish cattle for market.

BABY-BEEF CLUBS.

Another important phase of beef-cattle extension work is the organization of baby-beef clubs of boys from 10 to 18 years old. This work is really divided into two phases—"baby beeves" and "pure-bred calves." The work with pure-bred calves is having a wonderful effect in stimulating an interest for better breeding cattle, while the baby beeves give practical demonstration in putting the proper finish on steers for market.

The first baby-beef club organized in the South was started in Covington County, Miss., in the fall of 1914. The calves were fed throughout the winter and spring and sold the following May at the baby-beef club show, bringing 21 cents a pound more than any other cattle sold in the county at that time. The State club was organized in 1915 as a part of the beef-cattle demonstration work and a State show was held at the State fair in October. In 1916, 21 banks in the State advanced \$10,000 to finance the boys in buying calves and giving premiums. In addition to this the Illinois Central Railroad gave as prizes to the winners in each of nine counties five pure-bred bulls. The prize-winning calves, together with the bulls given as prizes, were exhibited at the State fair in October. During the fall of 1915 a State club was also organized in Texas, where the State show and contest was held at Fort Worth the following spring. Additional State clubs were organized in Oklahoma, Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, and Florida in 1916 with a total membership of 2,722 in the seven States.

THE PURE-BRED CATTLE BUSINESS.

The establishment of pure-bred herds of beef cattle in the South has progressed as rapidly as conditions would permit. At the present time there are a large number of small breeders of pure-bred cattle, and a few herds that take rank with

the leading herds of the United States, both as to size and excellence of animals produced. These pure-bred cattle are making money for their owners and are a source of inspiration to others. The produce are readily sold; in fact, during the past two years the breeders have not been able to supply the local demand.

The first public sale of pure-bred cattle in the South of which there is any record was held at Oklahoma City, Okla., in February, 1903, and consisted of 56 head of Shorthorns. The second sale was at Auburn, Ala., in February, 1904. This offering consisted of 53 head of Herefords and was distributed among farmers of Alabama and Georgia. Most of these cattle later died of tick fever.

A few subsequent sales were held each year, but very little was accomplished in this respect until about 1914. At this time pure-bred breeders in the North, breed associations, and cattle dealers saw opportunities for the sale of large numbers of pure-bred cattle following the eradication of the tick, and began to hold public sales at more frequent intervals.

In the accompanying table, showing the number of public sales of pure-bred beef cattle held in the Southern States by years, as reported in the leading breed and agricultural journals, it will be noted that the 11 sales held from 1903 to 1913, inclusive, have been totaled as a whole rather than by years because of the fact that there were so few sales during this period and also because the beginning of 1914 marks the time when the most rapid advance in the number of sales began. In the 73 sales held during 1914, 1915, 1916, and the first 10 months of 1917, as shown by the table, 1,250 bulls sold for an average price of \$274.25 and 1,899 females sold for an average price of \$305.49, or a total of 3,149 pure-bred beef animals sold for an average of \$293.08 per head.



FIG. 1.—TEXAS BABY-BEEF CLUB EXHIBIT AT FORT WORTH IN 1916.



FIG. 2.—FIVE YEARS AGO THIS WAS A COTTON PLANTATION. NOW THE NEGRO CABINS ARE EMPTY AND THE COTTON FIELDS ARE SODDED TO LESPEDEZA AND BERMUDA GRASS, ON WHICH GOOD ANGUS AND HEREFORD CATTLE GRAZE.



FIG. 1.—FARMERS AT A CATTLE-FEEDING DEMONSTRATION.



FIG. 2.—PURE-BRED SHORTHORN CALVES ON A SOUTHERN PLANTATION GRAZING ON A PERMANENT PASTURE OF HOP CLOVER, WHITE CLOVER, LESPEDEZA, AND BERMUDA GRASS.





NATIVE SOUTHERN GRASS-FED CATTLE READY TO BE LOADED ON CARS. THE DEHORNED ONES (UPPER PICTURE) SOLD FOR 60 CENTS A HUNDRED POUNDS MORE THAN THOSE WITH HORNS.

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FIG. 1.—BARN, SILOS, AND CATTLE OF ONE OF THE FIRST PURE-BRED HERDS ESTABLISHED IN THE SOUTH.



FIG. 2.—A COMMUNITY STOCKYARD AND SHIPPING PENS IN THE MOUNTAINS OF NORTH CAROLINA, FROM WHICH THOUSANDS OF GRASS-FED STEERS ARE SHIPPED ANNUALLY.

Public sales of beef cattle held in Southern States (1903 to 1917).

Date.	Place of sale.	Breed.	ani	ber of mals ld.	Averag	ge price.	:ems	nber Jning outh.
			Bulls.	Cows.	Bulls.	Cows.	Bulls.	Cows
Feb. 12,1908	Oklahoma City, Okla.	Shorthorn	17	39	5°55.00	\$117.50	17	. 81
Feb. 17,1904	Auburn, Ala	Hereford	27	26	197.60	228.85	27	20
Nov. 22, 1905	San Antonio, Tex	Shorthorn	7	6	115.71	263. 33	7	(
Mar. 22, 1906	Fort Worth, Tex	do	12	10	173.00	137. 50	12	10
Mar. 23, 1906	do	Hereford	32	14	141.40	126.07	32	14
Mar. 20, 1907	do	Shorthorn	11	28	78.95	97.45	11	2
Mar. 21, 1907	do	Hereford	10	22	137.64	176.98	10	2
Apr. 9,1907	Nashville, Tenn	do	13	30	129.88	166.75	18	30
Mar. 10, 1911	Jackson, Miss	do	16	28	241.00	170.00	15	2
Mar. 14,1912	do	do	12	30	215.00	142.85	12	30
Mar. 14.1913	do	do	21	18	273. 80	22 5. 25	20	18
	Totals and aver-		178	251	176. 96	159. 27	176	24
	ages, 1903–13.							<u> </u>
an. 10, 1914	Memphis, Tenn	Hereford	18	32	210. 55	154. 70	18	8:
Mar. 11, 1914	Fort Worth, Tex	d o	19	22	168.98	189.02	18	2
Mar. 17, 1914	Jackson, Miss	do	14	27	458. 90	399. 25	14	2
Apr. 7, 1914	Memphis, Tenn	Angus	34	26	161.60	145. 95	34	2
Apr. 10, 1914	Livingston, Ala	Shorthorn	14	26	221.07	199. 42	14	2
June 6, 1914	McMinnville, Tenn	Hereford	23	27	198. 24	221.76	22	2
June 8, 1914	Fayetteville, Tenn	do	23	27	179.36	200.64	22	2
Aug. 12, 1914	Meridian, Miss	Angus	12	. 24	122.08	139. 45	12	2
Do	do	Shorthorn	8	20	126. 25	167. 45	8	2
Aug. 13, 1914	do	Hereford	13	2 5	190. 80	185. 20	13	2
	Totals and aver-		178	256	202. 55	201. 56	175	25
	ages, 1914.			 				
Jan. 1, 1915	Albany, Ga		16	39	162. 25	172.07	16	31
Feb. 25, 1915	Oklahoma, Okla	Hereford	13	2	220.00	125.00	13	:
Mar. 17, 1915	Jackson, Miss		19	26	535. 55	345. 25	19	2
Mar. 18, 1915	Meridian, Miss	do	4	11	140.00	161. 10	4	1:
Mar. 19, 1915	Siloam, Ga		15	33	174.00	137.00	15	3
Apr. 17, 1915	San Angelo, Tex	do	12.	30	187.00	177.00	12	3
July 24, 1915	Huntsville, Ala	do	14	19	232. 63	256. 38	14	1
Sept. 23.1915	Knoxville, Tenn	do	16	37	222.80	234.30	16	3
Do	Midland, Tex		34	14	258.00	267.00	34	1
D ct. 10, 1915	Quitman, Ga		18	22	167.09	186. 91	17	2
Nov. 3, 1915	Macon, Ga		19	24	182.00	164.00	19	2
Nov. 4, 1915	Shreveport, La		27	11	165. 00	162.00	27	1
Nov. 19, 1915	Atlanta, Ga	l .	29	17	310.93	439. 41	27	1
Nov. 20, 1915	Siloam, Ga	1	9	29	109. 60	151. 10	9	2
Dec. 20, 1915	Jackson, Tenn	do	13	9	155. 00	130. 00	13	1
	Totals and aver-		25 8	323	252. 75	209. 50	255	32
	ages, 1915.	t	1	1	l	1	1	1

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Public sales of beef cattle held in the Southern States (1903 to 1917)-Contd.

I	ete.	Place of sale.	Breed.	ani	ber of mals id.	Averag	e price.	rema	nber ining outh.
				Bulls.	Cows.	Bulls.	Cows.	Bulls.	Cows
Jan.	26, 1916.	Salisbury, N. C	Angus	12	22	105.05	150.95	12	48
Feb.	2, 1916.	Montgomery, Ala	do	17	30	96. 02	129.98	16	12
	23, 1916.			18	42	814.00	276.30	17	37
Mar.	8, 1916.	Childress, Tex		16	27	123.00	150.00	16	27
Mar.	7, 1916.	Oklahoma, Okla		46	11	143.00	216.00	44	1
Mar.	8, 1916.	Knoxville, Tenn		18	25	193. 55	285.09	17	18
	14, 1916.	Fort Worth, Tex		12	16	173.75	277. 50	12	۱ ۱
	23, 1916.	Watonga, Okla		5	30	878.00	476. 19	4	2
	27, 1916.	Jackson, Miss		21	19	189. 52	246. 58	20	1
	28, 1916.	do	1	17	28	53R. 23	494. 68	11	1
Mar.	29, 1916.	Orrville, Ala	1	22	23	199.80	198.70	22	2
May	8, 1916.	Atlanta, Ga		7	38	270.67	323. 50	7	8
May	4, 1916.	do		7	38	328. 57	321.00	7	3
May	9, 1916.	Tulsa, Okla	•	7	35	233. 57	285.71	6	3
May	10, 1916.	Lawhen, La	1	6	15	132.03	162.96	6	1
Aug.	10, 1916.	Shreveport, La	do	8	18	237. 22	292.78	8	1
Aug.	12, 1916.	McMinnville, Tenn .		•	20	178.00	265.00	17	2
lept.	14, 1916.	Amarillo, Tex	do	45	7	393. 50	415.00	44	l
ept.	29, 1916.	Midland, Tex		88	16	370. 54	292.00	34	1
Oct.	20, 1916.	Atlanta, Ga	do	10	10	279. 30	331.00	9	1
Oct.	21, 1916	Meridian, Miss	do	24	18	186.60	171.00	24	1
Oct.	24, 1916.	Nashville, Tenn	Angus	6	26	295.83	342.11	5	2
	28, 1916.	Tulsa, Okia	Shorthorn	8	23	250.09	274.78	3	2
٧ov.	15, 1916.	Chickasha, Okla	d •	38	92	136. 28	165. 72	87	8
Nov.	23, 1916.	Watenga, Okia	do	7	31	440.00	643.87	6	2
Nov.	24, 1916.	Nashville, Tenn	Hereford	16	37	243. 48	234. 30	18	3
916.	•••••	do	Angus	14	88	209. 90	263.00	13	2
		Totals and averages, 1916.		457	730	246. 81	278. 53	430	63:
Jan. 1	1917	Salem, N. C	Shorthorn	16	4	179. 03	220. 96	16	-
Jan.	13, 1917.	Baton Rouge, La	1	1	12	190.00	144. 33	20	1
Feb.	15, 1917.			43	5	851.00	390.00	43	
Feb.	19, 1917.	Memphis, Tenn		19	41	205.00	239, 40	18	4
Feb.	21, 1917.	Amarillo, Tex		41	6	292.00	242, 50	37	
Feb.	26, 1917.	Memphis, Tenn	l .	12	37	543. 32	392.03	11	2
	27, 1917.	Jackson, Tenn			17	775.00	405. 59	1	1
	14, 1917.	Fort Worth, Tex		14	33	294. 83	367. 91	13	2
	21, 1917.	Watonga, Okla			26	404. 50	536. 16	9	2
Mar.	22, 1917.	Knoxville, Tenn	1		29	164.04	179.13	21	2
	22, 1917.	do	1	5	10	228.00	288.00	5	1
Apr.	5, 1917.	Atlanta, Ga			24	274. 25	338.08	10	2
Apr.	7, 1917.	Jackson, Miss			21	246.00	210.00	25	2
-	12, 1917.	Morristown, Tenn		8	31	192.00	176, 40	8	3
_	15, 1917.	Watonga, Okla			34	1,092.00	803. 52	5	2
	16, 1917.				36	509. 28	527.08	7	8

Public sales of beef cattle held in the Southern States (1903 to 1917)-Contd.

Date.	Place of sale.	Breed.	anir	ber of mals ld.	Averag	e price.	rema	nber ining outh,
			Bulls.	Cows.	Bulls.	Cows.	Bulls.	Cows
May 20, 1917.	Demopolis, Ala	Hereford	10	20	254.00	289. 00	10	20
May 23, 1917.	Berryville, Ark	Shorthorn	14	33	178.00	167.00	14	83
Oct. 13, 1917.	Amarillo, Tex	Hereford	34	40	398, 89	446. 21	32	35
Oct. 23, 1917.	Nashville, Tenn	Angus	14	39	271.50	308.00	10	24
Dec. 2, 1917.	Jackson, Miss	Hereford	28	92	1,044.14	877. 12	13	74
	Totals and averages, 10 mos. of 1917.		357	590	360. 68	436. 48	328	526
	Grand totals and averages, 1903– 1917.		1, 428	2, 150	262. 12	288. 42	1, 364	1,98

The table above represents approximately one-third of all the pure-bred beef animals sold in the South at public auction during the period covered, the other two-thirds being sold through State, county, and community associations, of which there are no official records.

EFFECTS OF TICK ERADICATION.

The improvement of the beef herds in the South by bringing in good breeding cows and pure-bred bulls with which to stock the abandoned cotton fields and to grade up the native cows, is so closely allied with the eradication of the cattle tick that the one can not be discussed clearly and effectively without discussing the other. In fact, this improvement would not have been possible had tick eradication not preceded it. The eradication of the tick has removed one of the greatest burdens that all cattlemen had to deal with. Since it has been made evident that the cattle tick can be eradicated and is doomed to be expelled from the South, and with a more recent assurance of this fact by State-wide tick-eradication laws, thousands of farmers have gone into the cattle business who would not do so before. The work has not only removed the tremendous danger but has demonstrated that cattle can be produced now much more cheaply pound for pound than when both cattle and ticks had to be fed.

With the exception of a few sections of the South the eradication work has progressed rapidly enough to make for the best welfare of the beef-cattle industry, in view of the fact that the farmers at the outset of the transformation were cotton raisers and not cattlemen, and that therefore it was necessary for them to learn the business as they gradually grew into it instead of plunging into the business and learning it afterward.

Progress in tick eradication in 11 cotton-belt States
(July 1, 1906, to Dec. 1, 1917.)

State.	Coun- ties in- fected	infe	nties cted , 1917.	Cour		Area infected July 1,	Area infected Dec. 1,	lected A man males and	
	July 1, 1906.	Whole.	Part.	Whole,	Part.	1906.	1917.		
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	Square miles.	Square miles.	Square miles.	P.ct.
Texas	198	154	8	41	8	191, 885	142, 918	48, 967	26
Oklahoma 1	161	22	10	25	14	47, 890	22, 377	25, 513	58
Louisiana	63	49	2	12	2	45, 409	37,824	7, 585	17
Arkansas	75	27	6	42	6	52, 525	20,952	31, 573	60
Mississippi	81			81		46, 362		46, 362	100
Alabama	67	27	8	37	8	51, 279	19,918	31, 361	61
Tennessee	42			42		16, 987	İ	16, 987	100
Florida	50	46	1	8	1	54, 861	49, 961	4, 900	9
Georgia	149	79		70		57, 438	35, 324	22, 114	39
South Carolina	44	10		34		30, 495	8, 619	21,876	72
North Carolina	75	21	2	52	2	37, 365	9, 674	.27, 691	74
Total	905	435	27	439	81	632, 496	347, 567	284, 929	45

¹ Only portions of 5 of the 61 counties were quarantined.

Cattlemen of the South now recognize the fact that inasmuch as the ultimate aim of the cattle industry is to put cattle on the market for slaughter, it is important that they adopt the most effective means of making them bring the best possible results and at the same time enrich their land, and that success may be expected just in proportion as they handle the proposition with intelligence and discrimination, doing away with all haphazard methods and having a definite and concrete purpose in view. They are divorcing themselves from all speculative ideas and devoting their operations to a systematic production of beef cattle for practical market purposes which is commanding for them the growing respect of the cattle markets.

BREEDING HORSES FOR THE UNITED STATES ARMY.

By H. H. REESE,

Animal Husbandry Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

FOR SEVERAL years the United States Government has been confronted with the difficult task of obtaining a sufficient number of horses of the right types for cavalry and light artillery use. Such types of horses have been scarce and are gradually becoming scarcer because motor-propelled vehicles have curtailed the demand for driving and delivery-wagon horses to such an extent that farmers have practically discontinued the breeding of light horses and instead have turned their attention to the production of draft horses. While our draft-horse stock has been improving in quality in recent years, our light-horse stock has been deteriorating.

In an effort to remedy this condition, which was of direct importance to the military strength of our Nation, because the War Department had depended upon the light horses produced by private breeders for its supply of Army horses, Congress provided in a limited way to encourage the production of such horses. The results of this undertaking, which are discussed herewith in detail, have been satisfactory. In order to furnish an adequate supply of light horses for our Army on a peace footing as well as to create a reserve which will be needed in recouping an Army actively engaged in war, when the demands are infinitely greater, this plan of encouragement should be considerably increased in scope.

GOVERNMENT ENCOURAGEMENT.

This plan of encouraging farmers in certain localities in producing more and better light horses, especially of military types, was put into operation beginning with the breeding season of 1913. The work was assigned to the Department of Agriculture, this department cooperating with the War Department in the furtherance of this plan. The plan adopted by the Government consists primarily in placing

sound stallions of proper type and belonging to the Thoroughbred, American Saddle, Standardbred, and Morgan breeds in suitable localities. The work was inaugurated in the States of Vermont, New Hampshire, Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

STALLIONS USED.

The Government purchased only stallions of merit. The first requisites were that they should be good, sound individuals and registered in the proper studbooks. Good breeding was sought, and in many cases stake and show-ring winners were obtained, but they were selected more largely on account of conforming to the saddle or artillery type than because of any previous records or solely on account of pedigree. The following stallions were purchased:

Stallions purchased by the Government.

Name.	Year foaled.	Color.	Height.	Weight.	Breeding.
THOBOUGHBREDS.			Hands.	Pounds.	
Charcot	1908	Brown	16	1,240	By Common; dam, Spanish Match, by Royal Hampton.
Gold Heels	1899	Вау	15.12	1,170	By The Bard; dam, Heel and Toe, by Glenelg.
Kind Sir	1909	do	15.8	1,100	By Flambeau; dam,Floradora, by Meddler.
Myles O'Connell	1907	Brown	15.31	1,100	By Milos; dam, Meteora, by Magnet.
Jack Parker	1906	Chestnut	16.0	1,190	By Golden Garter; dam, Flora Mac, by Falsetto.
Ganadore	1909	Вау	16.0]	1,100	By The Commoner; dam, Mountain Mist, by Magnet- izer.
Lynchburg	1909	Brown	15. 21	1,050	By The Scribe; dam, Rose Washington, by Faustus.
Single File	1908	Вау	16.1	1,140	By Sir Dixon; dam, Single Shot, by Star Shoot.
Demodus	1910	do	15.8 1	1,070	By Nasturtium; dam, Iveragh, by Springfield.
SADDLE HORSES.					
Richmond Choice 4578	1910	Black	15.8	1,175	By Rex Peavine 1796; dam, Dianah Mason 5816, by King Richard 2879.
Victor Peavine 5264	1911	Chestnut	15.2	1,100	By Rex Peavine 1796; dam, Pattie Stone 5773, by King Richard 2879.

Stallions purchased by the Government-Continued.

Name.	Year foaled.	Color.	Height.	Weight.	Breeding.
SADDLE HORSES—con. Fairscre Kifig 4059	1969	Chestnut		Pounds. 1,090	By Bourbon King 1788; dam, Aletha Chief, by Bourbon
Young Bill 5910	1908	do	15. 2 }	1,100	Chief 976. By Golden King 2359; dam, Mary Wells 2784, by Bourbon
Beechwold Chester 6226.	1906	Brown	16.	1,150	Chief 976. By Happy Dare 1870; dam, Mollie Nichols 4788, by Den- mark Chief J. B. 682.
Captain Peary 4161	1909	Вау	15.24	1,050	By Highland Flower 1662; dam, Nancy Lee 476, by Monte Cristo 59.
Hamilton's Chief 5801	1908	Chestnut	15.8	1,060	By Bourbon Chief 976; dam, Belle McDonald 1499, by Rax McDonald 833.
Highland Cloud 8490	1906	Вау	16	1,250	By Cloud King 2198; dam, Valeda 2613, by Highland Denmark 730.
Jesse Dare 6100	1907	Chestnut	16.2	1, 265	By Highland Dare 1534; dam, Lizzie Squirrel 9091, by Black Squirrel 58.
Judge Collins 2668	1904	Bay	16.1	1,120	By Highland Denmark 780; dam, Nora N 2071, by Black Squirrel 58.
High Vine 2733	1904	Chestaut	15.11	1,160	By Highland Gaines 1667; dam, Bessie Sable 2882, by Shrop- shire Kentucky Squirrel 1365.
STANDARDBREDS.			ł		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
MacNunne 45828	1906	Вау	16.2	1,300	By McDougall 33606; dam, The Nunne, by Young Jim 2009.
Sigler 51525	1909	do	15.24	1,180	By Red Medium 30516; dam, Maud Sigler, by Wilton 5962
Lord Rico 52777	1906	do	16	1,160	By Arion 18000; dam, Madge Fullerton, by Young Fuller- ton 3528.
Twilight M. 41993	1905	Chestnut	15.24	1,160	By Delmont J. 39474; dam, May Fry, by Charleston 9589.
Be Gue 52852	1905	Bay	15.3	1,075	By Wiggins 33907; dam, Lady Crescent, by Cyclone 1966.
King Spier 46820	1907	Brown	15.2	1,160	By Directum Spier 35012; dam, Lady Thisbe, by Milroi 20585.
Richford Jay 52050	1909	Bay	16	1,300	By Jay McGregor 37692; dam, Ecka, by Richford Baron 44951.
Glacier B. 82181	1899	Black	15.2	1,100	By Bob Mc 20539; dam, L. E. W., by Clark Chief, jr. 2110.
The Tribesman 54716	1907	Brown	15. 21	1,050	By The Clansman 40942; dam, Black Eagle Belle, by Bow Bells 13073.

Stallions purchased by the Government-Continued.

Name.	Year foaled.	Color.	Height.	Weight.	Breeding.
STANDARDBREDS—con.			Hands.	Pounds.	•
Hamlin McKinney 53966 MORGANS.	1907	Bay	15.1_	1,000	By McKinney 8818; dam, Lu- cinda Hamlin, by Mambrino King 1279.
Daniel Webster Lambert 6529.	1907	Chestnut	14.2}	925	By Lambert B. 5238; dam, Aggie, by Cobden 1515.
Madison Lambert 6530	1907	Вау	15.1	1,030	By Lambert B. 5238; dam, Jessie T., by Harius.
Donlyn 5849	1909	do	14.3	1,000	By Donald 5224; dam, by Billy Roberts, 4550.

In addition to the above-mentioned stallions the following thoroughbreds have been donated to the Government and have been used in the remount-breeding work of the Agricultural Department, and the Morgans named below, from the United States Morgan Horse Farm, Middlebury, Vt., have also been used in this work.

Stallions donated to the Government.

Name.	Year. foaled.	Color.	Height.	Weight.	Breeding.
THOROUGHBREDS.			Hands.	Pounds.	
Henry of Navarre a	1891	Chestnut	15. 17	1, 100	By Knight of Ellerslie; dam, Moss Rose, by Ill-Used.
Octagon b	1894	do	16, 13	1, 200	By Rayon d'Or; dam, Ortegal, by Bend Or.
Belfry II	1908	Вау	16. 1	1, 200	By Rock Sand; dam, Beldame, by Octagon.
Footprint	1908	Chestnut	16, 1	1, 200	By Rock Sand; dam, Fetish, by Rayon d'Or.
Dandy Rock	1910	Brown	15. 3	1, 150	•
Boola Boola	1907	do	16	1, 200	By Ben Brush; dam, The Mecca, by Midlothian.
Black Dick	1898	Black	16.0}	1, 150	By Sir Dixon; dam, Merdin, by Hindoo.
Merry Task	1907	Вау	16	1. 150	By Octagon; dam, Merry To- ken, by Merry Hampton.
Saint Rock	1913	Chestnut	16	1, 100	By Rock Sand; dam, St. Pricilla, by Rayon d'Or.

a Octagon, Henry of Navarre, Belfry II, Footprint, and Dandy Rock were donated by Mr. August Belmont, of New York, N. Y., prior to 1913. Bools Bools was donated by Mr. Johnson N. Camden, of Versailles, Ky., in January, 1913. Black Dick was donated by Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, of Virginia, in November, 1915. Merry Task and Saint Rock were denated by Mr. August Belmont in July, 1917.

b Octagon died July 3, 1917.

Stallions donated to the Government-Continued.

Name.	Year foaled.	Color.	Height.	Weight.	Breeding.
MORGANS.			Hands.	Pounds.	
Bennington 5693	1908	Вау	15.1	1,060	By General Gates 666; dam, Mrs. Culvers (3711) (s).
Castor 5833	1909	do	14.3	1,000	By General Gates 666; Babe, by Bob Morgan 4549.
Red Oak 5249	1906	do	15	1,040	By General Gates 666; dam, Marguerite, by White River Morgan 482.
Snoqualmie 5783	1909	do	15	1,000	By Troubedour 5125; dam, Sarah, by Gov. Fiske 3971.
Troubadour of Willow- moor 6459.	1910	do	15.1	1, 135	By Troubadour 5125; dam, Bob Morgan 4549.

TERMS.

The terms under which mares may be bred to these stallions are as follows: The owner of the mare agrees in writing at the time of breeding to give the Government an option on the resulting colt as a 3-year-old at a stated price which so far has been \$150. No service fee is charged unless the owner of a colt wishes to be released from the option, in which case it is \$25 for a mature stallion. This means that practically no money is invested in service fees. If the colt is purchased by the Government no service fee is charged. If the colt is offered to the Government and purchase refused, no service fee is charged. The breeder does not have to pay a service fee on a colt which dies, which is deformed, or which is seriously injured.

LOCALITIES.

In order to facilitate the supervision of the remount-breeding work the territory used was divided into three districts, that known as the first district, including the States of Vermont and New Hampshire; the second, the States of Virginia and West Virginia; and the third, the States of Kentucky and Tennessee. Morgan stallions alone were assigned to the first district. In the second district Thoroughbred, Standardbred, and American Saddle stallions are in use. In the third district the stallions belong to the Standardbred and American Saddle breeds.

Assignment of stallions to localities, by years.

ä			Locations each year.		
Stallion.	1913	1914	915	1916	1917
Beechwold Chester	Leitchfield, Ky.	Leitchfield, Ky.	Leitchfleld, Ky	Lettohfield, Ky	Leitchfield, Ky.
Be Gue	Shelbyville, Ky	Shelbyville, Ky	Henderson, Ky	Henderson, Ky	Henderson, Ky.
Belfry	Staunton, Va	Staunton, Va	Staunton, Va	Staunton, Va	Staunton, Va.
Bermington		Williamstown, Vt	Randolph Center, Vt Alburg, Vt	Alburg, Vt	Alburg, Vt.
Black Dick				Reform, Va	Orange, Va.
Boola Boola.	Lexington, Va., and	Washington, Va Washington, Va Front Royal, Va	Washington, Va	Front Royal, Va	Front Royal, Va.
	Gloucester, Va.				
Saptain Perry	Clinton, Ky	Clinton, Ky Clinton, Ky	Chaton, Ky	Clinton, Ky	Clinton, Ky.
Castor	West Fairlee, Vt	Chelses, Vt	Chelses, Vt.	Chelses, Vt	
Charcot	Aldie, Va., and Orange, Va.	Aldie, Va., and Orange, Va. Orange, Va.	Harrisonburg, Va	Harrisonburg, Va	Orange, Va.
Dandy Rock		Gainesville, Va Fredericksburg, Va Fredericksburg, Va	Fredericksburg, Va.	Middletown, Va.	Middletown, Va.
Daniel Webster Lam-	<u> </u>	Grand Isle, Vt Alburgh, Vt	Alburgh, Vt		
bert.					
Demodus	Воусе, Va	Воуов, Va	Not used after 1914		
Domlyn	Harrland Four Corners, Vt. Woodstock, Vt	Woodstock, Vt	Woodstock, Vt	Woodstook, Vt	Woodstock, Vt.
Fair Acre King	Gallatin, Tenn	Gallatin, Tenn	Gallatin, Tenn	Gallatin, Tenn	Gallatin, Tenn.
Footprint	Gainesville, Va	Gainesville, Va	Gainesville, Va.	Gainesville, Va	Washington, Va.
Ganadore		Bluemont, Va	Bluemont, Va	Washington, Va.	Bluemont, Va.
Glacier B	Huntington, W. Va	Huntington, W. Va	Huntington, W. Va		Harrisonburg, Va.
Gold Heels	Gainesville, Va	Gainesville, Va	Gloucester, Va	Washington, Va	
Hamlin McKinney		Henderson, Ky	Not used after 1914		-
Hamilton's Chief		Stanford, Ky		Stanford, Ky	Stanford, Ky.
Comer of Monome		Front Bone Va Front Bone Va	Pront Donel Ve		Fromt Down

Highland Cloud	Morgantown, W. Va	Highland Cloud Morgantown, W. Va Died in 1915			
High Vine	Point Pleasant, W. Va	Point Pleasant, W. Va Point Pleasant, W. Va Point Pleasant, W. Va Point Pleasant, W. Va	Point Pleasant, W. Va	Point Pleasant, W. Va	
Jack Parker	Harrisonburg, Va	Harrisonburg, Va	Not used after 1914		
Jesse Dare	Albany, Ky., and Hunt-	Falmouth, Ky	Falmouth, Ky Falmouth, Ky	Falmouth, Ky	Falmouth, Ky.
	ington, W. Va.				
Judge Collins	Falmouth, Ky	Not used after 1913			
Kind Sir Crabbottom, Va	Crabbottom, Va	Huntington, W.Va., Point		Middletown, Va Nokesville, Va Nokesville, Va.	Nokesville, Va.
		Pleasant, W. Va.			
King Spier. A	Barber, Va	Barber, Va	Barber, Va.	Barber, Va.	Huntington, W. Va.
Lord Rion	Gallatin, Tenn Gallatin, Tenn	Gallatin, Tenn	Gallatin, Tenn	Gallatin, Tenn	Kevil, Ky.
Loyal D			Gallatin, Tenn	Gallatin, Tenn	Clinton, Ky.
Lynchburg	Monterey, Va	Gloucester, Va	Madison, Va	Madison, Va	Gainesville, Va.
MacNume	Morgantown, W. Va	Woodstock, Va	Woodstock, Va	Woodstock, Va	Fredericksburg, Va.
Madison Lambert	West Claremont, N. H				
Myles O'Connell	Sweet Briar, Va	Lexington, Va	Not used after 1914		
Octagon	Front Royal, Va	Front Royal, Va	Front Royal, Va	Front Royal, Va	Front Royal, Va.
Red Oak.	Plainfield, Vt	Plainfield, Vt	Middlebury, Vt	Middlebury, Vt	Middlebury, Vt.
Richford Jay.	Fredericksburg, Va	Fredericksburg, Va	Fredericksburg, Va	Fredericksburg, Va	Woodstock, Va.
Richmond Choice	Front Royal, Va	Staunton, Va	Staunton, Va	Staunton, Vs	Point Pleasant, W. Va.
Sigler	Terra Alta, W. Va	Terra Alta, W. Va	Falmouth, Ky	Falmouth, Ky	Falmouth, Ky.
Single File	Madison, Va	Madison, Va	Not used after 1914		
Snoqualmie	Woodsville, N. H	Woodsville, N. H	Monroe, N. H	Tunbridge, Vt	South Peacham, Vt.
The Tribesman	Dixon, Ky	Dixon, Ky	Dixon, Ky	Dixon, Ky	Dixon, Ky.
Troubadour	Orfordville, N. H	ш	Perkinsville, Vt	Perkinsville, Vt	Perkinsville, Vt.
Twilight M	Kevil, Ky	Kevil, Ky	Kevil, Ky	Kevil, Ky	Gallatin, Tenn.
Victor Peavine	Front Royal, Va	Front Royal, Va	Front Royal, Va	Washington, Va	Staunton, Va.
Young Bill.	Mount Sterling, Ky	Mount Sterling, Ky Mount Sterling, Ky	Mount Sterling, Ky	Mount Sterling, Ky Mount Sterling, Ky.	Mount Sterling, Ky.

Within these districts Government stallions are sent to particular localities where there is a local demand for them. The class of mares in such localities, the lack of good light stallions, the topography of the soil, and the accessibility of the locality are all given consideration before stallions are assigned to particular points. So long as the results justify it, remount stallions are returned to their respective localities each season. For the season of 1917, however, the localities at which remount stallions stood remained practically the same as they were in 1916, but in many instances a different stallion was assigned to a particular point. This was deemed advisable in order that any 3-year-old fillies sired by remount stallions might be bred to other remount stallions provided they were sufficiently well developed. This plan of changing a stallion every four years has recently been made even more desirable because of an agreement with the War Department that owners of 3-year-old fillies might retain them without the payment of a service It is assumed that many of these fillies will eventually be bred if they are not bred as 3 or 4 year olds. This will permit of a grading-up process for particular types of horses that will be discussed in detail further on. (For assignment of stallions to localities see table on the two preceding pages.)

CLASS OF MARES BRED.

On account of the provision for free service, mares possessing the following unsoundnesses are not bred to Government stallions: bone spavin, ringbone, heaves, stringhalt, roaring, periodic ophthalmia (moon blindness), and blindness, partial or complete. Mares are selected for breeding to Government stallions that approach either a cavalry or light artillery type. The selection of mares proves an important educational feature as well as assures a much better class of army horses from the first cross. Following are the specifications for cavalry and light artillery types, as appearing in the War Department pamphlet issued in 1916 giving specifications for horses and mules:

Mature cavalry horses and saddle horses for mountain artillery, Signal Corps, Engineer Corps, infantry, and other purposes:

The mature horse must be sound, well bred, of a superior class, and have quality; gentle and of a kind disposition; well broken to the saddle, with light and elastic mouth, easy gaits, and free and prompt action at the walk,



FIG. 1.—THOROUGHBRED STALLION, HENRY OF NAVARRE



FIG. 2.—THOROUGHBRED STALLION, FOOTPRINT



FIG. 1.—SADDLE STALLION, FAIR ACRE KING.



FIG. 2.—STANDARDBRED STALLION, TWILIGHT M.



FIG. 1.-MORGAN STALLION, BENNINGTON.



FIG. 2.—THREE-YEAR-OLD COLT SIRED BY GOVERNMENT STALLION.

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FIG. 1.-SADDLE STALLION, JESSE DARE.



FIG. 2.—FOUR-YEAR-OLD SIRED BY GOVERNMENT STALLION.

Initials U. S. R. mean United States remount bigitized by GOOSE

trot, and gallop; free from vicious habits, without material blemish or defect.

A gelding of specified color, in good condition, from 5 to 8 years old at time of purchase; weighing from 950 to 1,200 pounds, depending on height, which should be from 15 to 16 hands, and otherwise to conform to general description for horses.

Artillery horses for light and horse batteries:

The artillery horse for light and horse batteries must be sound, well bred, of a superior class, and have quality; of a kind disposition, well broken to ha ness, and gentle under the saddle, with easy mouth and gaits, and free and prompt action at the walk, trot, and gallop; and free from vicious habits; without material blemish or defect.

A gelding of specified color, in good condition, from 5 to 8 years old at time of purchase; height from 15½ to 16 hands; weight from 1,150 to 1,300 pounds, depending on height, and otherwise to conform to general description for horses, except that the neck and shoulders of the artillery horse should be somewhat more heavily muscled than the cavalry horse, and shoulders so formed as to properly support the collar.

shoulders so formed as to properly support the collar.

Horses otherwise satisfactory which fall short of or exceed these limits of weight by not more than 50 pounds, due to temporary conditions, may be accepted.

The artillery horse for light and horse batteries is required for quick draft purposes, and should be heavy enough to move the carriage ordinarily by weight thrown into the collar rather than by muscular exertion. Longlegged, loose-jointed, long-bodied, narrow-chested, coarse, and cold-blooded horses, as well as those which are restive, vicious, or too free in harness, or which do not upon rigid inspection meet the above requirements in every respect, will be rejected.

RESULTS OBTAINED FROM STALLIONS.

Summary of stallions' records.

Breeding season.	Number of stallions.	Number of mares bred.	Average number of mares bred per stallion.	Living foals.	Aborted or dead foals.	Number of mares failing to get with foal.	Per cent of mares impreg- nated.	
1913	41	1, 551	38	606	111	884	46	
1914	43	2, 014	47	818	109	1,087	46	
1915	37	2, 150	58	948	129	1,073	50	
1916	36	2, 019	56	a 717	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	ļ		
1917	85	a 1, 448						

₽ Includes only reports received to June 30, 1917.

Sterility in various forms is the chief cause of stallions not getting a larger percentage of mares in foal. In the Army horse-breeding work an effort is made to eliminate mares thus afflicted as quickly as they are detected. With all precautions, however, a certain percentage of sterile mares will be bred. The failure of the owner to return his mare at the proper time to have her tried and rebred if necessary is another cause of stallions not foaling a larger percentage

 of their mares. To counteract these conditions mares bred to remount stallions are given artificial services when practicable, as this form of service sometimes impregnates mares after a natural service has failed.

Allowing for the above-mentioned disadvantages, remount stallions have made a good showing in the number of colts obtained, 3,089 having been dropped since the beginning of the work to June 30, 1917. There has been an increase in the number of colts obtained annually per stallion, which signifies that a better class of mares is being bred each year and that the remount breeding work is undergoing conservative development.

PURCHASES BY THE WAR DEPARTMENT IN 1917.

As previously stated, the first appropriation for the remount breeding work was made available for the breeding season of 1913, making the first crop of 3-year-old colts available for inspection and purchase by the War Department in 1917. The inspection was made during the months of April and May, and the results are summarized in the accompanying table. An early inspection of the first crop of 3-year-olds was deemed advisable in order that farmers would be assured that the Government was anxious to purchase those colts which were up to the specifications, and it was thought this would be apt to stimulate the breeding of desirable mares in 1917. Also, as the War Department was expecting soon to purchase a large number of mature horses for the European conflict, it was necessary to have the purchase of colts completed at an early date. While an early inspection had its advantages, it also had disadvantages, due to the fact that the previous winter had been a hard one on stock generally and many colts were submitted which were too thin to be accepted by the War Department. A few were under the required height and were not purchased. Many such colts would probably have passed had they been inspected after having been on good pasture two or three months; consequently, circumstances permitting, colts will be inspected in the middle of the summer in the future.

Results of inspection and purchase of 3-year-old colts in 1917.

					ection.	(Rejected causes.)				8.)	Pur- chased.	
Stallion	Colts available.	Colts died.	Service paid.	Fillies retained.	Not shown at inspection	Understaed.	Poor conforma- tion.	Physical defects.	Color.	Unoastrated.	Colts.	Pillies.
Beechwold Chester	15	1	0	3	2	3	1	1	1	0	2	1
Be Gue 4	4	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	l
Belfry	17	4	2	8	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	
Beznington	21	6	0	4	1	. 0	0	3	0	0	4	١.
Boola Boola b	15	0	1	2	0	2	o	2	0	0	4	
Captain Peary	19	2	0	8	3	2	0	0	0	0	3	
Castor	23	3	ì	8	1	7	ı	0		2	2	۱ :
Charcot	14	4	2	1	8	2	ī	0	1	0	0	
Dandy Rock	6	2	0	•	1	2	0	0	o	0	0	
Daniel Webster Lambert	1	0	ı	o		0	0	0	o	0	0	
Donlyn	13	4	ı	1	٥	3	0	0		2	li	
Fair Acre King	7	اها	0	8	0	1	0	٥		ō	2	
Footprint	21	2	2	ō	10	0	0	0	0	o	4	١.
Ganadore	21	3	ī	3	2	8	0	1	1	0	2	
Glacier B	21	5	ī	4	2	ı	3	0	8	i	lī	
Gold Heels	10	i	ō	ī	8	ī	0	ŏ	0	ō	i	
Hamilton's Chief	16	0	0	9		ī	i	0	o	o	2	
Henry of Navarre	16	4	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	5	
Highland Cloud	11	i	اها	3	lī	2	1	o	1	o	2	١,
High Vine	26	3	ľ	2	4	2	0	4	ō	0	6] .
Jack Parker	6	0	i	0	li	ī	0	0	o	0	٥	l,
Jesse Dare	26	0	1	16	2	0	0	0	0	5	2	
Judge Collins	12	٥	0	1	0	o	2	0	1	٥	4	Ι.
Kind Sir	. 3	0	0	0	3	٥	0	0	0	Ö	ا	
King Spier	17	2	0	l i	0	6	0	1	ō	i	. 2	
Lord Rion	7	0	1	lī	0	li	1	ō	0	٥	2	l
Lynchburg	5	0	٥	6	3	0	0	0	ŏ	٥	0	l
MacNunne	11	0	li	5	0	2	0	i	ō	ŏ	i	ı
Madison Lambert	13	1	l î	li	٥	2	2	1 0	0	4	1	1
Octagon	20	0	2	ı	5	٥	1	0	o	ō	7	1
Red Oak.	14	6	0	2	0	li	li	0	2	0	2	١,
Richford Jay	27	1	2	2	l	i	3	li	2	ŏ	11	
Richmond Choice	l i	0	0	0	li	0	0	6	6	ŏ	0	
Sigler c	13	1	0	2	8	1	1	<u>ا</u> ا			0	
Single File.	1 .	4	0	4	ľ	2	1	0	1	0	4	
Snoqualmie	14	2	0	2	0	2	6	0	1	1	0	
The Tribesman	19	1	١	9	1	1	1	0	٥	0	4	
Twilight M	28	1	0	4	0	3	1	4	0	0	8	
Young Bill	19	0	١٥	8	4	٥	6	0	١٥	0	4	١,
-	<u> </u>	_	<u> </u>		_	 -	-	Ť	_	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
Total	575	64	22	111	60	59	28	20	16	16	94	8

a One Be Gue colt passed inspection, but was not purchased, as shipping expenses would have made it impracticable.

b One Boola Boola colt purchased on which service fee had previously been paid.
c Purchasing officer decided not to incur shipping expenses on the few Sigler colts available, as owners preferred to keep them.

One hundred and seventy-four colts were purchased by the War Department, and 60 colts were not submitted for inspection. Service fees will be paid on some of the latter, and the others will be inspected later. One hundred and eleven fillies were retained by their owners, and it is probable that a large per cent of these will eventually be used as brood mares. Also, some of the 59 undersized 3-year-olds were fillies, and these too may add to the future brood-mare supply. This feature must be given due credit because the subsequent use of these fillies for breeding purposes will be a far-reaching one, both to the communities in which they are owned and to the Government.

The undersized colts will be inspected again as 4-year-olds, and the War Department will purchase any which have developed sufficiently to meet its requirements. In the meantime, or after the first inspection, the owner is relieved of the option and may dispose of the colt as he sees fit. Sixteen colts were submitted which had not been castrated, and they were not purchased, although they will be in the future, provided that in the meantime they are castrated and otherwise come up to the specifications. The five uncastrated colts by Jesse Dare were so much superior to anything else in the vicinity of Albany, Ky., that the owners wished to keep them for breeding purposes. Service fees were paid on 22 colts, and 64 had died or were reported dead, between the time of making up the statements of the number available and the time of inspection.

Such conditions, together with the fact that this is the result of the first year's breeding, accounts for the War Department's not getting so large a number of colts as may well be expected in the future when the work has been brought to greater proficiency and breeders better understand the working of the plan and the class of colts required by the Government. The first few years' work must be regarded partially as pioneer work. At that, a very large percentage of the colts were desirable. Deducting the number of dead colts and the number not brought in for inspection from the number available, leaves 451 that were actually inspected. The colts which the War Department purchased, the fillies which were retained by their owners, and the colts on which the service fees were paid constitute over 68 per cent of those

inspected. These are desirable colts and as a class are considerably above the average. The colts rejected on account of their color were mainly excellent individuals. As just pointed out, many of the undersized colts will very probably average high as to individuality, and some of them may be purchased at a future inspection. Considering these facts, to state that 68 per cent of the colts were above the average does not tell the whole story, as this percentage will undoubtedly be considerably higher after subsequent inspections have been made. Had the off-color colts been graded and included in computing the percentage, it would have been higher.

ADVANTAGES OF REMOUNT PLAN.

Another plan that has been suggested for the production of Army horses is for the Government to maintain sufficient brood mares from which to raise its own horses. This would necessitate the purchase and maintenance of several thousand mares, practically all of which would be idle. Under very favorable conditions and with maximum results each colt produced would readily cost considerably over \$100 the day it was foaled, and with the cost of rearing added to this, the cost to the Government of colts reared in this way would be far in excess of the cost of colts produced under the plan now in operation, besides taking an important side line from farmers. Under the present plan the brood mares are usually farm work mares which generally pay for their feed by doing farm work, and the colts are produced at birth without cost.

Under present market conditions there is little opportunity for an owner to make money by standing a high-class light stallion, because farmers generally prefer to breed to a draft horse. Consequently, where light stallions are available in farming sections they are likely to be very cheap horses, because such horses have some chance of doing a fairly profitable business by standing for a low service fee. Cheap stallions also are usually peddled from farm to farm, and some farmers persist in using such horses on account of their convenience and low fee. Inferior stallions are largely responsible for the scrubs and misfits. By furnishing high-class stallions at a nominal fee and offering a market for the

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colts, as the Government is doing, this condition will be

largely corrected.

Community breeding has been of inestimable value to the live-stock interests of England and France. It has been successful in this country where given a fair trial. The chief difficulty with this plan of breeding in this country is to get farmers to organize and stay organized. Under the remount plan of breeding the Government takes care of all necessary organization, and it is not necessary for the farmer to do anything more than breed the mares and raise colts. This plan of breeding will eventually lead to community breeding if localities fortunate enough to be selected by the Government as a stand for their stallions will give the support which the system justifies.

No constructive effort has heretofore been made in this country to produce horses of cavalry and artillery types. Horses of these types have been selected from among those that were bred to trot fast, for running speed, for high action, or for saddle gaits, but which did not inherit these characteristics in sufficient degree to make them valuable for the purpose for which they were bred. The object of the remount breeding work is to select for and breed sound horses with quality, stamina, and endurance, and conforming to the cavalry or artillery types. Such animals will also be useful, especially in mountainous sections, for riding and driving purposes and for general farm work.

Records of the Department of Agriculture show just where the colts are. They are in limited areas and are readily inspected and assembled for shipment. Much money will consequently be saved by the Government in travel and shipping expenses.

IMPROVEMENTS AS WORK PROGRESSES.

The Government must make light-horse breeding as attractive in certain localities as is the raising of draft horses and mules. This must be accomplished largely by paying a suitable price for the colts, and this price must be based on the cost of production, plus a reasonable profit, and not on the present market price of light horses.

Farmers should retain their best mares for breeding purposes and properly feed and "grow out" their colts. Because of insufficient feeding some farmers do not realize the possibilities in their colts.

High-class stallions should be obtained to take the place of those which die or are no longer used. This will be possible only when sufficient funds are allowed for the work. In case a stallion fails to sire a sufficient number of the proper types of colts he is castrated.

With the provision made by the War Department for allowing owners to keep the filly foals without the payment of a service fee, a grading-up process can be carried out after the plan has been in operation for sufficient time to make a large number of mares sired by remount stallions available. As already stated, stallions will be changed in most localities every four years, and an effort will be made to return a stallion of the same breed. At some points at least it may be found desirable to do some line breeding in order more rapidly to fix and perpetuate type. Artificial insemination of mares will be relied upon more and more as the number of good mares obtained exceeds the number which can be taken care of by natural service.

AN AGRICULTURAL AS WELL AS A MILITARY PROJECT.

Notwithstanding the necessity for the remount-breeding work from a military standpoint, this work is nevertheless largely an agricultural proposition. While it is true that the draft horse is to-day looked upon as the agricultural horse in this country, still there are sections where strong, robust, light horses are preferred for farm work and are necessary for other purposes. Take the mountainous and semimountainous sections of Virginia, for instance. There are many such sections in other States as well. soils of such topography light horses are well suited because of their activity, sure-footedness, superior lung capacity, and endurance. On such farms heavy agricultural machinery is practically out of the question, so that heavy horses will very probably never be an economic necessity. A considerable portion of such land is usually used for grazing purposes and the owners require saddle horses for getting over their farms. The roads are generally none too good, and consequently horses must be the means of transportation, during the winter at least. Many such sections do

not enjoy the advantages of railroads, and farm produce must be transported many miles by wagon. For such purposes horses carrying an infusion of thoroughbred blood are very popular, and it is a common sight to see six active horses with quality, and weighing around 1,200 pounds, drawing a heavily loaded canvas-covered wagon up a mountain grade at a smart walk. It is not unusual for young horses to be purchased out of such teams and in a few months developed into officers' mounts or hunters. As an example of the usefulness of horses carrying thoroughbred blood may be cited a pair of half-bred horses that, after serving their time as hunters, were used as leaders in a farm team and in that capacity wore out three pairs of wheelers which were worked behind them. In mountain grazing sections it is practicable to raise a few colts from the farm mares and under such conditions light colts frequently pay better than draft, because such conditions are more apt to develop sure-footedness, good feet, endurance, and quality rather than weight, which is the predominant requisite of a draft horse.

In short, the Government's plan of aiding farmers in such sections in producing Army horses is giving them material aid as well as educational aid in developing an important phase of their farming operations. Good horse power is indispensable to successful farming, and good horses can not be produced without good sires. From the agricultural standpoint alone, the remount-breeding work should be extended to other suitable localities, to say nothing of the resultant effect of adding to the defensive strength of the country in a military way.

BUTTERFAT AND INCOME.

By J. C. McDowell,

Agriculturist, Dairy Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

THE profitable dairy cow helps to feed our armed forces and will help us win the war, but the low-producing, unprofitable scrub is little better than a slacker. The unprofitable cow may enjoy perfect health and have a large appetite; she may even belong to one of the best cow families, but if she is not an economical producer she should be converted into meat.

The present, however, is not the time to dispose of dairy herds; rather it is the time to enlarge and improve them. The city, the country, and the Army need more dairy products; the dairy cow also assists greatly in maintaining permanent soil fertility; and the carefully selected, well-bred, well-fed dairy cow may still be kept at a profit. Let our slogan, therefore, be: Careful selection, intelligent breeding, and skillful feeding.

SELECTION.

It is well known that dairy cows, to be profitable, must be comparatively large producers, yet few people fully realize the remarkable rate at which income advances as production increases. Tabulations of 5,587 cow-testing association records from various parts of the United States, covering a period of four years, show that as the average butterfat production increased from 150 to 200 pounds, the income over cost of feed advanced from \$21 to \$34; that is, a gain of 50 pounds, or 33\frac{1}{3} per cent, in production gave an increased income of 62 per cent over feed cost. The next gain of 50 pounds raised the income over cost of feed to \$50, the next to \$63, the next to \$74, the next to \$87, the next to \$100, and the last to \$118. (See Table 1.)

As the butterfat production increased from 150 pounds to 300 pounds, the income over cost of feed advanced from \$21 to \$63; in other words, as production doubled, income

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over cost of feed advanced three times. When the butterfat production increased from 150 pounds to 450 pounds—that is, trebled—the income over cost of feed advanced from \$21 to \$100, or almost five times as much. (See fig. 8.)

Table 1.—Relation of butterfat production to income over cost of feed.

Average results from 5,587 yearly records of 40 cow-testing associations.

Average production of butterfat.	A verage income over cost of feed.	Average production of butterfat.	Average income over cost of feed.
100 pounds per year	\$5.00	350 pounds per year	\$74.00
150 pounds per year	21.00	400 pounds per year	87. 00
200 pounds per year	34.00	450 pounds per year	100.00
250 pounds per year	50.00	500 pounds per year	118.00
800 pounds per year	63.00		

If no expenses except the cost of feed had been considered, 1 cow that produced 450 pounds of butterfat a year would have shown as much income over cost of feed as 20 cows belonging to the group where average production was 100 pounds. Had all expenses been considered, the results would have been even more striking. As applied to any par-

BUTTERFAT 150 POUNDS A YEAR. INCOME OVER COST OF FEED \$21.
BUTTERFAT 300 POUNDS AYEAR.
INCOME OVER COST OF FEED \$ 63.
BUTTERFAT 450 POUNOS A YEAR.
INCOME OVER COST OF FEED \$100.

Fig. 8.—Relation of butterfat and income.

ticular herd of dairy cows, the figures are only approximate, and doubtless they are true only within a limited range of production when applied to any group of cows, yet within reasonable limits of production they appear to hold true of all classes of dairy cows regardless of breed, age, weight, date of freshening, or geographical location.

Figure 9 shows the relation between butterfat production and income over cost of feed for 5,587 cows for one year's time. These records were from 40 cow-testing associations

and included all cows that were on test for the entire year and whose breed and age were given. Within the limits of production shown by the curve, the point of diminishing returns does not seem to have been reached.

A further study of the records showed that the cost of roughage was about the same for all groups, regardless of production. The cost of grain was considerably higher for the more productive cows than for the low producers, but it

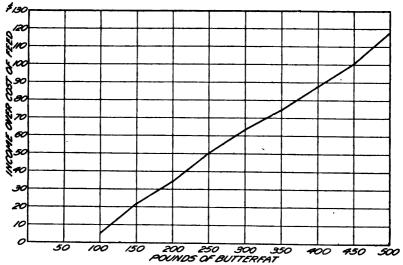


Fig. 9.—Chart showing the relation between butterfat and income over cost of feed.

was much lower per pound of butterfat. The increased income, therefore, though it should be credited in part to better feeding, was evidently more largely due to better cows.

A herd of 91 cows in one association produced in 12 months a total income of \$58 over cost of feed, or 64 cents for each cow. When the owner sends that herd to the block he is to be congratulated. The country is not yet so short of dairy products that anyone need milk such cows. A farmer who owned a very large farm of poor land is reported to have said: "I know that my land is worthless, but it makes a fellow feel good to think he owns a thousand acres." Possibly it made the owner of the scrub herd "feel good" to think he owned 91 cows.

In a herd of cows in another association, the poorest produced only income enough over cost of feed to buy a two-cent postage stamp. For labor and miscellaneous expenses of all kinds the owner had only the manure, skim milk, and calf. It seldom pays to sell a good cow; it never pays to keep a poor one.

It has been estimated that the average production of all the dairy cows in the United States is 160 pounds of butter-fat a year. The average production of all the cows in the 40 associations studied was 247 pounds a year. Careful tabulations of the records of the 40 associations show that a production of 160 pounds of butterfat a year gave an income of \$23 over cost of feed, while the average income over cost of feed for all the cows in these associations was \$47, or a little more than twice as much.

Undoubtedly the dairymen who join cow-testing associations are more progressive than the average, and own cows and farms that are much above the average, but the fine showing made by association cows should be credited, in large measure, to association work. Certainly the cow-testing associations return many dollars more than they cost. It is encouraging also to know that the cow-testing association records indicate that the large-producing dairy cows are the least affected by the increased cost of feeds. Therefore, every dairyman should aim to keep all his good cows, or to place them where they will continue the economical production of human food. Economical production can be obtained not only through careful selection of dairy cattle but through intelligent breeding and skillful feeding.

BREEDING.

Cow-testing association records show the great value of intelligent breeding. Of the 17 daughters of carefully selected bulls in one association 16 excelled their dams. The bulls were owned by the local bull association, whose members were also members of the cow-testing association. On an average the daughters of association bulls produced 1,145 pounds more milk than their dams and 63 pounds more butterfat. The average production of the daughters for the year was 6,919 pounds of milk and 301 pounds of butterfat. The record of the highest-producing daughter was 410

pounds of butterfat, which was 209 pounds above the record of her dam. These figures show the possibilities of increasing production through intelligent breeding.

Not every dairy farmer can afford to own a good registered bull, but the bull association has made it possible for each of its members to own a share in one. Fifty dollars may buy a scrub bull, but if five farmers will join an association and pay \$50 each, they may own a \$250 pure-bred bull. A cooperative bull association is a farmers' organization whose purpose is the joint ownership, use, and exchange of high-class, pure-bred bulls. The 36 cooperative bull associations that are now in successful operation have demonstrated that such organizations are practicable. Doubtless the cheapest way to bring about more economical production is through better breeding. Every dairyman knows that with the same feed and care one cow may produce more than twice as much as another. First-class dairy cows are very efficient producers of human food and we should have more of them. Truly we need more cows, but what we need most is better cows.

FEEDING.

Tabulations of association records show that production depends largely upon the feed as well as upon breeding. Legume hay and corn silage formed a large part of the rations of the cows where income over cost of feed was high. Therefore, while grain is high priced and needed for other purposes, the dairy cow should get a large part of her protein and carbohydrates from legumes and silage. In this way large production can be combined with economical production, and the income over cost of feed can be increased. Economical production benefits both the producer and the consumer.

The feeding of concentrates to dairy cows should be based on known production. Farmers who are too busy to test their own cows may now have the work done for them at nominal cost by joining a cow-testing association. As ordinarily conducted, a cow-testing association is an organization of about 26 dairy farmers who cooperatively employ a man to test their cows for economical production. The tester not only weighs the milk and the feed but he tests the milk

for butterfat and assists the farmers in feeding their cows according to production. Often he helps the farmers to organize for the economical purchasing of feeds in carload lots, and for the efficient marketing of their dairy products and surplus live stock.

Before the formation of a cow-testing association in a certain dairy district, few farmers fed grain to their dry cows, and none fed a balanced ration to any of their cows; prepared feeds of unknown merit were largely used; and some farmers dished up the grain with a scoop shovel and fed all their cows alike, regardless of production. As is usually the case under such circumstances, many excellent cows were underfed and many worthless ones ate up the profits made by the larger producers.

Through the active cooperation of all the members of the association those conditions were rapidly changed. Better feeding of dry cows increased the milk flow during the next lactation period; the use of a well-balanced ration brought about more economical feeding, and abandoning the scoop-shovel method and feeding concentrates according to production greatly reduced the cost of feed. However, the elimination of low producers that did not respond to better feed and care effected the greatest saving of all. In some herds these changes more than doubled the income over cost of feed. The dairymen belonging to that association demonstrated that it pays to keep good cows and to feed them well.

The cow-testing association records clearly show that the most practical, far-reaching, and vitally important facts connected with the economical production of milk may be grouped logically under these three heads: Selection, breeding, feeding. Careful and intelligent feeding, care, and management lift the dairy business to a certain level, but the highest level can be reached only when to these are added careful selection and intelligent breeding.

THE SERVICE OF COLD STORAGE IN THE CON-SERVATION OF FOODSTUFFS.

By I. C. Franklin, Specialist in Storage, Bureau of Markets.

FACTORS LEADING TO DEVELOPMENT OF COLD STORAGE.

BEFORE the days of railroads the individual farm in the United States was self-sustaining in so far as its food supply was concerned. The urban population drew its food supplies from the surrounding farms, and, with respect to perishable commodities, was limited to a short radius. Rail transportation has made possible our present industrial life with its coincident growth of large cities. Cold storage and the development of the refrigerator car have lengthened the radius of the circle from which any given city of to-day draws its food supplies until it includes all of continental United States.

Since 1900 the increase in population in the United States has been approximately 26,000,000, and it is of interest to note that while our general population has grown rapidly there has been a gradual change in its distribution between rural and urban dwellers. The urban population has increased from 29.5 per cent of the whole in 1880 to 46.3 per cent in 1910. Therefore, the change in rural residence has been from 70.5 per cent to 53.7 per cent between the same years. Moreover, in 1910 more than 80 per cent of the urban population lived in cities of 10,000 or more.

Thus, because the population has tended to become more centralized, it has been increasingly necessary to concentrate foodstuffs in stock yards, packing houses, grain elevators, flour mills, and storage plants, for the use of these large centers of population. The storing of perishable foodstuffs under a plan of refrigeration probably possesses greater possibilities of future development than any of these other systems of concentration. From an economic point of view, the cold-storage warehouse deserves great credit for its service in preserving and conserving the surplus of extremely

perishable foodstuffs from the season of plenty to that of scarcity, thus furnishing the consumer at all times with an adequate and wholesome food supply, stimulating production, and providing for the producer a year-round market.

INCREASE IN STORAGE SPACE.

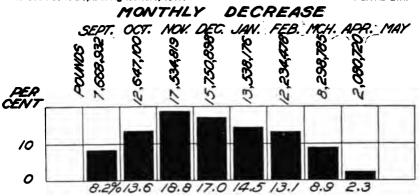
The first storage houses in the United States were cooled by a mixture of crushed ice and salt. During the period when this method was being used the largest cold-storage house in the world was located in the Central West and contained a total capacity of 1,800,000 cubic feet. In the late eighties and early nineties the first installations of mechanical refrigeration in large commercial units were made. In 1887, as nearly as may be estimated now, there were less than 3,000,000 cubic feet of storage space in Chicago, while in Greater New York as late as 1902 there were less than 6,000,000 cubic feet. To-day Chicago has approximately 60,000,000 and Greater New York 40,000,000 cubic feet.

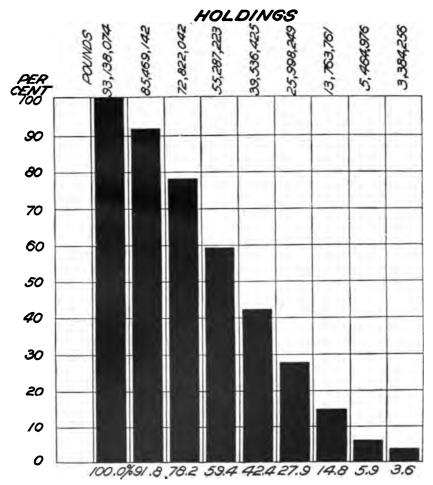
The increase in storage space throughout the entire country has been enormous. At the present time we have a storage space of 212,310,000 cubic feet, in round figures, in packing houses, exclusive of their branch sales rooms, and 237,000,000 cubic feet in public cold storages, making a total of 449,310,000 cubic feet. In addition, there are under construction and will be completed and in operation in the United States by the time this article is printed, facilities to afford additional space of approximately 25,240,000 cubic feet, making a grand total of 474,534,000 cubic feet. This large growth of total holding space has taken place during the period of our greatest increase in population.

CLASSES OF FOODSTUFFS HELD IN STORAGE.

The classes of foodstuffs stored under artificial temperatures are many and various, the principal ones being apples, seed potatoes, butter, eggs, cheese, meats, poultry, fish, dried and frozen fruits, frozen cream, nuts, rice and sirups.

The use of mechanical refrigeration in the cold-storage house and the refrigerator car has made it possible to supply the eastern cities and export trade with meats, poultry, butter, and eggs from the great Mississippi- and Missouri





COLD STORAGE BUTTER MOVEMENT AS REPORTED TO THE BUREAU OF MARKETS, DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, SEASON 1916-1917.

River Valleys; apples from the Pacific Northwest; and fish from the Pacific Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico.

By far the largest proportion of cold-storage space is at the large market centers, and practically all of the foodstuffs stored in them are owned by distributors who buy from the producers at times when they must sell their products and when the markets are most heavily loaded.

TEMPORARY STORAGES AT PRODUCING POINTS.

At some of the producing points the farmers have combined to build their own storages, so they may bring their products to the consuming centers more nearly as they are needed by the public and, by so doing, find better marketing conditions.

Unfortunately, however, not all products lend themselves to storage at the producing points. Poultry and eggs are produced only in small quantities by the individual farmer, and in relatively small quantities by single communities. A cold-storage plant must be large in order to be operated economically, and a small storage for a few carloads for long holding can not expect to compete with those in the larger cities when the cost of construction, the installation of machinery, and the cost of operation per cubic foot of space are twice as great in such small storage houses. However, some producers and the collectors of storage products in various communities have found that they can well afford to have a refrigerated room of somewhat more than a carload capacity for collecting purposes, so that stocks may be cared for properly until the shipment can go forward in carload lots under refrigeration. The saving in freight and the prevention of loss by deterioration, together with the higher prices obtained on account of the better condition of the food, in many cases pays a good profit on the investment.

In various parts of the country, especially in the South, where there are fewer meat packing houses than in the North, good results have been secured by using ice storage houses connected with ice manufacturing plants as temporary storages for the protection of pork prior to and during the curing processes. At points where such ice storage houses are not available, small refrigerators, cooled with ice, are used.

During the early development of the cold-storage industry. when data were lacking as to the proper construction of a cold-storage house with respect to its insulation, its ventilation, and the circulation of air within it, and when no information was available as to the exact temperature at which a given commodity should be held or as to the length of time it could be held without serious deterioration, practices were followed which created doubts in the public mind as to the efficacy of this method of the preservation of perishable foodstuffs and as to the healthfulness of all foodstuffs that have been in cold storage. Unfortunately, in many cases the shortsightedness of the owners of such products and of the operators of the cold-storage houses, both of whom failed to recognize the fact that their own financial success depended ultimately upon good service to the public, aggravated the prejudices of consumers and was responsible for much of the proposed legislation designed to improve the service of coldstorage houses and to protect consumers.

The methods followed in the handling of eggs well illustrate the general system of handling all commodities in those days. Eggs were eggs till they reached the ultimate consumer, who drew a sharp distinction between a good egg and a bad egg. The warehouseman concerned himself only with the service of storing them, and with his remuneration for that service. The individual who assembled large quantities of eggs to hold in storage either assumed that they were all good eggs or counted on evading responsibility for their unsoundness. Neither dealers nor warehousemen gave any attention to containers and methods of packing, nor were eggs candled to make sure that only sound eggs went into storage. Retailers bought them out of storage in the blind faith that some magic property of cold storage had made good eggs of all the bad eggs, or else accepted the situation as one for which they were not responsible and which they could not remedy.

CRITICISMS OF COLD-STORAGE INDUSTRY.

The popular criticism of cold-stored foodstuffs is that they have been held in storage to a point of deterioration when they become neither palatable nor wholesome. Coupled with this is the belief that they are often held unduly long for the

purpose of manipulating the market. That former practices justified the first criticism has been shown; that there is a basis for the second criticism can not be denied. It may be added, however, that there are limits beyond which holding for market manipulation can not go, which are not so well understood by the general public.

The construction of cold-storage warehouses is more scientific than formerly and methods now used in their operation are more efficient, but some warehousemen still follow practices that account for the persistence of the first criticism against all cold-storage warehouses in general. Among such practices is the holding of products on display in the market by customers of warehouses until deterioration has set in and then sending them to cold storage. Better judgment in the display of products in the market, stringent sanitary regulations on the part of the Government, and a system of inspection on the part of warehousemen themselves in cooperation with the Government will do much to correct these practices.

TIME LIMITS OF STORAGE.

Reference has been made to the limits beyond which storage for the purpose of manipulating prices can not go. The limit is the very practical one of time. From voluntary reports received from approximately 98 per cent of the cold storage warehouses in the United States the Bureau of Markets of the United States Department of Agriculture for some time has been compiling monthly figures showing the stocks of various foodstuffs held in cold storage on the last day of the month. Plate LIX represents graphically the movement of butter as shown by these reports. This chart indicates clearly the decrease of the holdings with the season's advance. The history of the movement of butter thus portrayed is typical also of the movement of eggs, cheese, and poultry.

Economic forces are always exerting pressure to bring about the reduction of the stocks in storage when the new season's product is soon to become a factor in the market. To the original cost of the stocks must be added the costs of insurance, interest, storage charges, shrinkage, and a probable depreciation of value if the stocks are held too long. All of these costs increase month by month. It is also a

common practice for storage houses to make advances to owners of stocks held in storage, accepting these stocks as collateral to the loans. If there is a possibility that the old stocks will come into competition with the new stocks, a condition which naturally is bound to be to the disadvantage of the former, the warehouseman or banker is likely to call in the loans or ask for additional margins. It is apparent that this condition makes the holding over of stocks a decidedly precarious venture. It is universally agreed in trade circles that it is bad business to carry stocks over the seasonal period, as the practice is almost always attended by financial loss.

RESULTS OF INVESTIGATIONS BY UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

The Department of Agriculture for a number of years has been engaged in extensive research work regarding the wholesomeness and palatability of foodstuffs that have been in cold storage for various periods. It has been found that poultry, meats, fish, butter, eggs, and some other products, if they are received in good condition and are properly stored can be held from 9 to 12 months without appreciable loss in flavor, and for much longer periods without loss in food value or general wholesomeness.¹

Many hundreds of cold-storage chickens have been studied by the chemists of the Department of Agriculture and compared with chickens held for the ordinary length of time in wholesalers' or housewives' refrigerators. Such studies show that there is a greater deterioration after a couple of days in the housewife's ice box than after 14 days in the well-chilled box of the wholesaler or after 8 months in the freezer of the cold-storage warehouse where the temperature is about 10° F. Even at the end of 12 months in the freezer, the deterioration is frequently less than that which has occurred in the so-called fresh chicken which has gone promptly from the producer to the consumer, but which has not been kept constantly at a temperature below 40° F. The Federal chemists also find that cold-storage chickens do not spoil any more rapidly after removal from the warehouse than do un-

¹ These investigations have been carried on by the Food Research Laboratory of the Bureau of Chemistry.

frozen chickens, provided they are allowed to thaw in cold air and are not placed in water to draw out the frost.

The length of time that eggs can be kept in a properly operated cold storage depends mainly on their condition when they enter. Eggs laid during cool weather keep best and longest. Therefore, the March and April pack of eggs is kept for midwinter use, while the June pack is used in late autumn and early winter, when seasonal production first begins to decrease. If the early eggs have been carefully graded and packed before going into storage, they can be acceptably served poached or soft boiled up to six months and are still good food at the end of nine months.

Experience and scientific research alike have shown that fish properly frozen retain flavor and food value for more than 12 months. In fact, epicures are learning that the only way to preserve the flavor which makes fish just out of the water so palatable is to freeze them just as soon as they are caught. The "freezers" which are scattered along our coasts are so close to the pound nets, and the catches from the boats are landed so frequently, that very often a flapping fish must be pushed into its place in the pan which goes into the zero-cold room where the quick freezing is done. Such fish when thawed in cold air, not water, make the usual ice-packed market stock seem flat and tasteless by comparison.

CONCLUSION.

Dealers and warehousemen now have learned that cold storage does not improve foodstuffs, but that if products are in excellent condition when placed in storage and are properly cared for while in storage they will serve as wholesome food when withdrawn for market within certain time limits. The lesson learned in regard to the storage of eggs is typical of the whole field of perishable food products that go to the warerooms. In general, the wholesale distributors are men of large experience, who carefully safeguard the condition of the products which they handle. Another restraining influence is the fact that many, if not most commodities will not stand storage for more than one season without deterioration. When offered for sale after two seasons' holding, unaccompanied by the history of their storage, such products tend to create prejudice against all storage stocks

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With advances in the science of refrigeration engineering, a more enlightened spirit on the part of distributors, and proper care on the part of the operators of cold storage houses, the cold storage industry, with the aid of constructive legislation, might be expected to solve some of the more pressing problems in the conservation of the country's food supply. If the traditional prejudice against cold-storage food stuffs were removed and the storage space of the country largely increased, much more could be done toward stabilizing both production and prices of perishable foodstuffs.

PIG CLUBS AND THE SWINE INDUSTRY.

By J. D. McVEAN,

Animal Husbandry Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

EVIDENCE in abundance indicates that the pig-club work plays a prominent part in stimulating the swine industry. The direct effects are very evident in various sections of the country. They show that the work is fulfilling its mission, that it is a practical and constructive means of meeting the problems in swine husbandry and stressing economy of production through the utilization of wastes, by-products, and grazing crops; through the use of good breeding stock, and their proper care, feeding, and management. These objects are accomplished through the innate appeal of animal life to young people, and their faith, optimism and determination, which, together with their responsiveness to instruction, lead to successful achievement (Pl. LX).

PLAN OF WORK.

To provide work that may meet the need in the different sections of the country and the need of the members as they advance, the following projects are offered and are in common use:

1. Feeding project.

(a) Fattening phase, in which the member feeds a pig or a

number of pigs for pork production.

(b) Breeding phase, in which a weanling pure-bred sow pig (or boar and in some cases both) is raised by the member to breeding size and age.

2. Sow and litter project.

In this project the member has a sow (either the one raised in Project 1, or another bred gilt) which he or she cares for until the sow has weaned the litter; that is, this project covers the practical breeding and raising of pigs.

3. Herd project.

¹ In the preparation of this paper a letter was sent out to the professors of animal husbandry in the States in which cooperative pig-club agents are located, calling for their frank opinion of the pig-club work in order that this article might be representative of the work and not the author's personal opinion. The various pig-club agents were also asked for their opinions of the effect of the pig-club work on the swine industry. Thanks are due these men for their cooperation.

In sections where the swine industry is well established the members in many cases have had experience in caring for swine and are not interested in a unit of one or two pigs, such members may, with their parents' consent, handle all the hogs on the farm in either meat production or breeding work, under the father's direction, yet following the club regulations and instructions.

BASES OF AWARD IN PRIZE CONTESTS.

In order that the work over the country may be on a uniform and comparable basis, the following bases of award to govern the various State-wide prize contests have been used very commonly and satisfactorily; while arbitrary, they are designed to show the relative importance of the various points from an animal husbandry and practical standpoint:

1	
1. Fattening phase of feeding project:	Points.
(a) Best pig according to purpose it is	to serve,
i. e., individuality	30
(b) Greatest daily gain	20
(c) Cheapest cost of production	30
(d) Best record and written report of by member	work done
	
2. Breeding phase of feeding project:	40
(a) Individuality (as above)	40
(b) Greatest daily gains	
(c) Cheapest cost of production.	25
(d) Record and report	20
3. Sow and litter project:	
• (a) Best sow and litter according to pur	rpose they
are to serve 1	
(b) Average rate of gain per pig	15
(c) Cost of gains including keep of sow	from one
breeding period until pigs are we	eaned 30
(d) Number of pigs raised from total	ıl number
farrowed	10
(e) Record and story	20
4. The herd project can be handled under b	pasis of award
No. 3 by substituting "herd" in place	e of "sow and
litter." Special prizes for phases of covered by the regular basis of aw	the work not
covered by the regular basis of aw	ard should be
offered. The member may select a pig	g or pigs from
the herd to show under bases of aw	ard No. 1 or 2.
In such cases the average rate and cos	st of gain for
all the pigs would be used.	

¹ The "individuality" rating of the pig is determined at the State Fair or Fat Stock Show or at such other place as the State Round-Up is held; the official judge of the swine show to place the pigs in the order of their merit.

INTRODUCTION OF BETTER FEEDING METHODS.

One of the outstanding effects of the pig-club work is the improvement in the feeding methods employed by adults who have followed the lead of some club member. Even in the leading hog-producing States, where the quality of the hogs is high, very noticeable changes in feeding practices have come about as the result of the demonstrations made by club members. This statement is backed by two very prominent animal husbandmen in different corn-belt States, while the following table shows the results obtained by a pig-club boy in still a third corn-belt State.

Self-feeder results obtained by Arthur Rodekohr, a Nebraska pig-club champion.

Seven pigs fed.	June 26 to July 27—31 days.	July 27 to Aug. 27—31 days.	Aug. 27 to Sept. 27—31 days.	Sept. 27 to Oct. 30—33 days.	Totals for 7 pigs.
Corn	6 bu., 34 lbs 18 lbs 77.5 galls 25 days 245 lbs 450 lbs 305 lbs 6.61 lbs 36.095	8 bu., 46 lbs 20½ lbs 77.5 galls 31 days 450 lbs 675 lbs 225 lbs 7.26 lbs \$7.388	15 bu., 41 lbs. 34 lbs. 77.5 galls. 30 days. 675 lbs. 917.5 lbs. 242.5 lbs. 7.82 lbs. \$12.08.	24 bu., 11 lbs. 12 lbs 80 galls 917.5 lbs 1,435 lbs 15.68 lbs 16.69	56 bu., 20 lbs 84½ lbs. 812.5 galls. 86 days. 245 lbs. 1,435 lbs. 1,190 lbs. 9.44 lbs. 842.263.
Cost per pound of	\$0.029	\$0.032	\$0.049	\$0.032	\$0.035.

FEED AND WEIGHT TABLES.

Note.—Seven pigs of April farrow were weaned June 26, 1915. Average initial weight of 35 pounds, total 245 pounds, which at \$0.06 gives \$14.70 as the initial value. Feed cost \$42.25, corn at 60 cents per bushel; tankage at \$2.80 per cwt.; akimmed milk 1½ cents per gallon; alfalfa pasture 0.3 cent per pig per day. The alfalfa was grazed until Oct. 4, when pigs were put on self-feeder and gained an average of 2½ pounds per pig per day. Average rate of daily gain for the period of 126 days, 1.34 pounds. Gains cost \$0.0358 per pound. Final weight 1,435 pounds (average weight 205) at \$0.0685 gives \$98.28. Net profit (not charging work) \$41.33.

The boy's father and several neighbors have decided to use the self-feeder. The boy's work drew much attention in the neighborhood.

In some instances it has been the use of a self-feeder for fattening hogs by a club member (see Pl. LXI) that was the means of causing the farmers of that community to adopt the same method. In other sections the use of a balanced ration by a club member caused the farmers in his neighborhood to realize that corn alone is a poor and expensive hog feed, or that grazing crops or good pastures are essential to

economical gains on swine (Pl. LXII, fig. 1). In one county in Kentucky the pig-club demonstrations were the means of increasing the use of tankage, as a supplement to corn. from 2 tons to 75 tons per year in two years' time. Alabama the pig-club agent obtained a pound of rape seed for each member who made a preliminary report on his or her pig. As a result of this small beginning one store in one county sold over 1,000 pounds of rape seed that fall and 1,500 pounds the following spring, and now that county is green with grazing crops for hogs (Pl. LXII, fig. 2). Since rape has made a place for itself in that county, the use of soy beans, cowpeas, velvet beans, etc., is now being pushed. Similar results, though perhaps less striking, have obtained in other States. Sixty-nine per cent of the members who completed their work last year report the use of grazing or pasture crops.

The demonstrations by the boys are closely watched by the adults (Pl. LXIII, fig. 1). The keeping of records showing the initial and final weights, the amounts and kinds of feeds used, the length of the feeding period, and the number of days the pigs were on grazing crops is interesting; the rate and cost of gains is definite information the adult has wanted to know. The club work, then, is a point of contact by means of which county agents may reach adults when the direct approach brings little or no response.

INTRODUCTION OF BETTER BREEDING STOCK.

The quality of the pigs to be fed is equally as important as the feeding method. In some sections of the country the need for better breeding stock was outstanding. In such cases the pig-club agents have practically insisted that only pure-bred pigs could be used in the breeding projects. This necessitated the importing of registered pigs of both sexes. The results of the demonstrations made by members handling these pigs under instruction from the pig-club leader have caused a great demand for pigs "just like Sonny's." The club members' demonstrations of the advantages and possibilities of well-bred swine when intelligently fed and managed have caused a great increase in demand for breeding stock from the pure-bred breeders. At first the breeders were inclined to be skeptical, as they expected

the boys to buy registered stock, allow it to deteriorate, then offer pure-bred scrub pigs at meat prices—thus destroying the demand for the breeders' pigs. The breeders were happily disappointed and are now lending their support and backing to the work. One professor says: "Pigclub work has created the greatest demand for breeding stock that this State has ever experienced."

In some cases the refusal of club members to accept anything but registered pigs has induced breeders to have their herds registered in order that they might share in the demand for pigs by club members. A typical case of the influence the pure-bred pigs brought in by pig-club members is given by a county agent in Arkansas. When the agent began work there were two breeders in the county producing pigs of sufficient merit to meet the demands of the club work. the first year of his work he had 35 pig-club members. Four of these members procured registered boars. These boars sired 58 litters of pigs from scrub sows, thereby improving the blood of 402 pigs (Pl. LXIII, fig. 2). They also sired 47 pure-bred hogs for farmers. Farmers also purchased three boars and 36 sows. The second year in the work the club had 42 members who had 6 pure-bred boars. They sired 71 litters from scrub sows, producing 496 pigs. They also sired 104 pure-bred pigs. The agent adds, "I think I can trace 7 boars and 41 sows (pure-breds) purchased by farmers, as a result of pig-club work in communities, during the second year of the club."

Arkansas typifies the manner in which pure-bred breeding stock is being introduced into sections where it is needed. Last year 1,800 pure-bred gilts were placed with as many pig-club members. The bankers of the State financed the members. This year between 2,200 and 2,400 pigs also were placed in a similar manner. Another instance of the introduction of well-bred breeding stock and the reestablishment of a waning industry is taking place in the free range cholera-infested section of eastern Texas. The pig-club agent, assisted by the Fort Worth Stock Yards Co. and the State and Federal veterinarians, is sending many car lots of immunized sows to the club members in this region, where the industry was being destroyed by the ravages of hog cholera (Pl. LXIV).

Demonstrations of the sort are of far-reaching importance. The swine-breeders' and swine-record associations bear witness that there is great demand for pure-bred breeding stock, especially in the Southern States. The pig-club members take many pure-bred pigs and have been a powerful stimulus in creating demand among the adults. It is interesting to note that of the four States, Mississippi, Georgia, Virginia, and Delaware, reporting increases in the number of swine on September 1, 1917, over September 1, 1916, Mississippi and Georgia stand second and third in pig-club enrollment. These two States report an increase of 90,000 hogs, while the country at large shows a decrease of over 5,000,000.

FOSTERS COMMUNITY BREEDING.

Not only has the pig club stimulated the demand for better breeding stock, but also has been the means of introducing community breeding or breed standardization in numerous counties in various States where the pure-bred part of the industry was practically new and where there were not numerous breed preferences to contend with. Louisiana, Georgia, Arkansas, Kentucky, Alabama, and in fact every State where the "endless chain" plan of financing pig-club members has been in effect for one or more years. have many communities where but one breed of pure-bred swine prevails and even many counties where but one or two breeds are prominent. Kentucky, for instance, reports that "pig-club work has been responsible for the standardization of 14 counties to one breed of swine." Twenty-nine county agents also report that pig-club work was the best single piece of demonstration work conducted by them. The establishment of community breeding has been an ideal toward which adults have striven but which few have succeeded in reaching, owing to the individualism of adults with whom they had to deal. The value of the demonstrations by the boys is not easily measured.

The members are not only centering their attention on community breeding, but are maintaining the quality of their pigs. The members of the older clubs in organized counties sell their surplus breeding stock to the new members in counties taking up the work. One county agent, in referring to the quality of the pigs produced by the members,



THE 1916 GEORGIA PIG-CLUB CHAMPION AND HIS PIG RAISED ON GARBAGE, SETTING THE PACE FOR ECONOMY OF PRODUCTION.



FIG. 1.-ARTHUR RODEKOHR AND HIS PIGS.

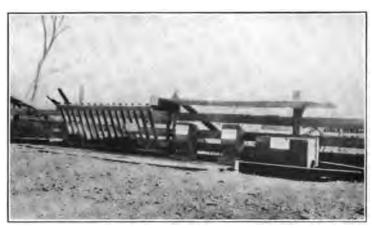


FIG. 2.—THE SELF-FEEDERS USED BY ARTHUR RODEKOHR.

This boy used three self-feeders and an alfalfa rack instead of one with three compartments to hold the corn, tankage, and charcoal or tonic mixture.



FIG. 1.—SOY BEANS MAKE A SPLENDID GRAZING CROP FOR HOGS AND REDUCE THE COST OF GAINS.



FIG. 2.—RAPE, WHILE NOT A LEGUME, IS ONE OF THE BEST GRAZING CROPS WHEN ALL SEASONS AND SECTIONS OF THE COUNTRY ARE CONSIDERED.



FIG. 1.-"WHERE THERE IS A WILL THERE IS A WAY."

Weighing pig-club pigs to determine rate of gain. Records of feed consumed enable members to compute cost of gains per pound. Such data are unknown to many a father.



FIG. 2.-"A STUDY IN FEEDING AND BREEDING."

All the pigs in the picture have the same sire—a registered Berkshire boar. The pig on the left is pure bred. The others have a "razorback" mother. The large ones were owned by a pig-club boy and fed by him with the same feed and out of same trough. The runts were raised by his neighbor. The pure bred is 3 days older than the others. At the State fair they weighed 305 pounds, 48 pounds, 205 pounds, and 49 pounds, respectively. This demonstrates the value of brooking; also the possibilities of razorbacks in pork production when mated to pure-bred sires and properly fed and cared for.



"YOUTH SETTING THE PACE."

for his neighbors, wearing out his instruments. He was presented with a new set by the State veterinary department. Note.—There are not sufficient practicing veterinarians in some of the Southern States to take care of the work. The county agents in such States teach the An Arkanses pig-club member demonstrating the use of anti-hog-cholora serum (single treatment). This boy vaccinated over 1,000 head of swine farmers to administer the serum-alone or single treatment.



FIG. 1:—COPELAND COMMUNITY BOYS' PIG CLUB, LIMESTONE COUNTY, ALA.

The boys organized and adopted a breed and then bought their pigs through the assistance of a local bank. This is but one of several community clubs in that county alone. Some of the best gilts are not in the picture because it is too near time for them to farrow. The club expects to hold an auction sale in the fall.



FIG. 2.—WARREN BONER, OF OREGON, AND A FEW OF THE 40 REGISTERED HAMPSHIRES OWNED BY HIM.

This boy started his father in the pure-bred breeding business. They are in purtnership now and have over 100 head.



PIG-CLUB BOYS JUDGING PIGS, AN IMPORTANT PART OF THE TRAINING OF THE MEMBERS.



FIG. 1.—WALTER WHITMAN AND HIS PIG "JUMBO" AT THE END OF FOUR MONTHS' FEEDING PERIOD.

At the beginning of the feeding period Walter built a creep in which to feed his pig, but the pig outgrew the creep and had to be fed outside.



FIG. 2.—THE CITY HAS NO ATTRACTIONS FOR THIS YOUNGSTER.

says: "Out of 10 pure-bred pigs obtained last spring for my club members, the one best pig was secured from a club boy in an adjoining county."

The pig-club boys have not only taught the adults, where the industry is new, the superiority of the pure-bred over the scrub; they have taught them that good individuals bring good prices. One county agent expresses the thought in these words: "Before this year it was hard to get a farmer to pay \$10 for a good hog, now they pay \$50 to \$100."

STIMULATES PORK PRODUCTION.

The practical stimulus to the swine industry through the pig-club work by demonstrating the superiority and the possibilities of pure-bred swine, thereby increasing the demand for well-bred breeding stock, is especially valuable at this time, when a large and immediate increase in production is needed and when high-priced feeds make efficient feeding and economy of production imperative. The members, in addition to stimulating the market for well-bred breeding stock, are playing an increasingly important part in the production of meat—of pork and pork products. The pigclub members of to-day are the nucleus of a great organization of trained meat producers. Packing houses are springing up in the wake of the pig club. In 1917 the 45,000 pig-club members, if their results are comparable to those of members who made complete reports in 1916, will produce at least 10,000,000 pounds of dressed pork. The importance of this work in feeding the armies can be appreciated readily.

Everywhere may be found men who are enthusiastic over the possibilities of the work. A banker says: "Since we started club work we have financed adults and boys in securing several hundred registered sows and boars. It will not be long until we shall be shipping out carload lots of high-grade hogs." A county agent when asked in regard to the effect of the pig club on the swine industry in his county reports: "One hundred per cent increase in numbers of hogs since pig club was introduced and 200 per cent increase in quality and weight. The boys are meeting the demand for breeding stock as well as shipping many pigs out of the county." Another agent says: "It is estimated that the pig clubs have been worth \$10,000 to this county. Out of 152 boys and girls who bought pigs with borrowed

money there was not a single delinquent note. The bankers consider pig-club notes the best paper they have." Still another county agent states: "The club members have revolutionized the hog industry in this county." (His members have 348 pure-bred pigs in one-half of the county.)

These statements are astonishing, yet true, and they concern sections of the country where the industry is young. Just what the ultimate influence of the work is to be on increase of pork and pork products it is hard to say, but a startling development may be expected if results already obtained may be taken as a criterion. To realize the opportunity there is for development we must consider that in some of the States the farmers have been raising razorbacks, taking two years to produce a hog of marketable size (not over 150 pounds). Contrast this result with that obtained by Walter Whitman, in Indiana. His pig gained 18 pounds, 21 pounds, 27 pounds, and 24 pounds in four consecutive weeks. The pig was weighed each week by the club supervisor. When it was 6 months and 7 days old it weighed 297 pounds, and at 8 months it weighed 456 pounds (Pl. XLV, fig. 1).

HOME CURING OF MEATS.

As a means of stimulating the home curing of meat "ham and bacon" clubs were organized in Georgia several years ago among the pig-club boys. For three years North Carolina has had cured-meat contests in which the pigclub members were allowed to compete. That State is putting on a special campaign for meat curing and storing in an effort to introduce better methods among the adults. In Massachusetts the work consists largely in the production of meat hogs for the home-meat supply. In Nebraska the pig-club agent is putting on killing and cutting demonstrations for the members, which are also creating keen interest among the adults. The need for teaching the farmers of to-morrow the art of the home curing of meats is evident in the warmer sections, where trouble is experienced in curing the meat and especially in storing it successfully. Enormous quantities of meat can be saved if proper methods are successfully introduced. The youth of the land offer the best educational medium (Pl. XLV, fig. 2).

IMPROVED MARKETING METHODS.

Poor markets are a problem that face any new industry during the time it is becoming established. This has been true of the live-stock situation until recently, but since the possibilities have been demonstrated with the advent of packing plants and better shipping facilities, marketing conditions are rapidly improving. Cooperative "club" shipments in which a number of individuals have stock have helped the situation materially. The carloads thus formed sell for much better prices than the local dealers would pay. Another improvement in marketing, in which the club members are helping to set the pace, is in vogue in the South in sections where individuals do not have sufficient hogs for car lots. All who have hogs for sale bring them to the county seat on designated sales days. All the hogs are graded and grouped, then sold to representatives of the packers or cantonments. The producers realize at least 2 cents a pound more for their hogs than they could get from local dealers.

EDUCATIONAL EXHIBITS.

A live-stock show is universally classed as an educational institution. Farmers flock to the various fairs and expositions eagerly seeking the latest and best information on equipment, conveniences, methods, etc. They want to keep abreast of the times. They get definite and concrete suggestions to carry home and apply. They refresh their minds and eyes as to what is best in type and finish in the various classes and breeds of live stock. Experience has taught that the participation of children in the activities of a fair, show, or exposition multiplies its educational value. This is because the children themselves learn more definitely in this manner than in any other and because their presence in the competition lends "human interest" and thereby increases the interest of the adult. In many instances youth has shown the way in live-stock production and by his demonstration has won the respect and emulation of the adult.

Anyone who has witnessed the pig-club exhibits at State fairs will bear out this statement. The intelligence displayed by club members, the responsiveness of the pigs to good care and kind treatment, the high quality of the exhibit, and the businesslike air of the contestants has stimulated men to the point where they, too, want to produce high-class stock and enjoy the thrill that goes with successful achievement. The pig club stimulates adults to greater effort to increase quality and merit in their live stock. It centers public attention and interest on rural affairs. It puts the swine industry on a higher plane.

JUDGING CONTESTS.

The judging contest is one of the important phases of the work that merit comment, for if the club member is to become a successful breeder or producer of pork he or she must be able to read at a glance the merit of a pig as an individual and its probable value as a breeding animal, also its ability to utilize feed as a meat producer. He or she must know breed type and characteristics and know how to detect quality or its absence. No better means of training pig-club members in this important work has been discovered. The competitive idea grips the youngsters' interest and holds their minds open in a way that has not been approached by any other system—incidentally the open mind is being indelibly impressed with the points that indicate strength or weakness, merit, type, breediness, quality, vigor, prepotency, etc., in the pigs or other classes of live stock that come before them either in a contest, in college, or in business life.

The intelligence displayed, the accuracy with which boys or girls of even 12 years of age size up the pigs in a judging contest, and the faithfulness and interest manifested by the contestants furnish abundant proof that young people can do intelligent stock judging. The judging contests have had an important part in winning the support of the swine breeders to the pig-club work. Incidentally many adults, after witnessing the club members in judging contests and observing their methods, have gone home to examine their hogs with a more critical eye, with subsequent improvement in their herds. Judging contests are educational and as such are worth while (Pl. LXVI).

INDIRECT RESULTS.

This article would be incomplete if no mention were made of the indirect results of the work. It establishes a point of contact between father and son, awakening a new spirit of comradeship between them. As a result more boys stay on the home farms. Fathers learn to appreciate their children and to give them fair play; that is, they learn that in club work it can not be a case of "Sonny's pig but Daddy's hog." The financing of members by bankers teaches intelligent borrowing and good business methods. The associations of the members, the contests, the trips to fairs, etc., open the minds, broaden the vision, and awaken the spirits of the members. The club work is a feeder of the agricultural colleges. It leads to community action and spirit as it gives a rallying point of interest, a community interest. It is a means of tying up the heart interests of the members with life on the farm (Pl. LXVII). It is a character-building work. In short, the indirect results of the pig-club work are perhaps of equal importance with the direct results, though not so easily measured. The consciousness of successful achievement, by a boy or girl, has a value that can not be measured in dollars and cents.

HOW THE WORK IS MANAGED.

The pig-club work is carried on through cooperation between the Animal Husbandry Division of the Bureau of Animal Industry and the States Relations Service, representing the Department of Agriculture, and the various State agricultural colleges, represented by their respective extension departments. A swine specialist, supported by funds appropriated by Congress for the work of the Animal Husbandry Division, is placed in each of the States desiring such a man (so far as funds permit). The specialist's work is administered by the director of extension, who furnishes office room and equipment, stenographic assistance, and pays his travel expenses. He is a unit in the extension staff and works in closest cooperation with the State leader of other club work. All the work is done in cooperation with the county-agent force and the various interested departments of the college and extension force. The subject matter taught by the specialists is agreeable

to the animal husbandry department of the college and the Animal Husbandry Division of the Department of Agriculture. A simple project or agreement covering the work is arranged by the States Relations Service between the extension service of the agricultural college and the Animal Husbandry Division.

The pig-club agent is the leader of the animal-club work in the State. It is his duty to provide technical instruction for the club members; to provide supervisors or local leaders and to train them so that they may impart the information to the members. In some cases the duty of organizing the pig clubs falls to the lot of the State agent, while in other States the State leader of general club work and his staff attend to the organization. He works with and through the county-agent force and makes use of such local leaders as are available. He projects his vision of the work into the minds of the local leaders and through them into the lives and minds of the members. He must impart his technical information in terms that can be understood by the local leaders and applied by the members. He meets the swine breeders of the State and seeks to win their approval, support, and cooperation. His work must be constructive and must strike at the swine-husbandry problems of the State. He will plan and arrange for the State-wide exhibits, judging contests, etc., supplying rules and regulations concerning them. He visits individual members on their home farms and helps them solve their problems. conducts demonstrations, simple in nature, yet effective in solving the problems of the members and the adults. work must win the support of the parents of the members if it is to be successful.

The individual effort of the agent would accomplish little were it not for the splendid cooperation extended by the extension forces, by the bankers and business men, breeders, local interested people, etc. The work succeeds because the agent multiplies his influence through all the cooperating agencies.

As the work grows there is a tendency among directors of extension in a number of States to delegate to the pigclub agent the supervision of all the animal-club work in the State—that is, the pig clubs, the calf clubs, in which

calves of beef breeding are used, and the sheep or lamb clubs. Doubtless this will come about gradually as organization and local supervision increase.

This work is the outgrowth of the crop clubs, especially the corn club. The members of the corn club, having learned to produce corn (representing feed crops), needed to be taught to market their crops through live stock, thus teaching them to get the feeder's profit as well as the grower's profit, and at the same time maintain or increase the fertility of the soil, or, in other words, to maintain a balanced husbandry. The innate appeal of animal life to children insured the popularity of the work. The first pig-club work is generally recognized as having been started in Caddo Parish, La., in 1910, under the leadership of E. W. Jones.

STATUS OF THE WORK.

The work has spread rapidly, until practically every State is doing more or less pig-club work as a part of the general club work. Twenty-one States have pig-club agents employed in cooperation with the Animal Husbandry Division and the States Relations Service. Since emergency funds became available for increasing pork production, five men have been placed in as many States to handle not only the pig-club work, but the swine-extension work with adults as well. Fourteen assistants to pig-club agents have been placed. In these States work with adults to stimulate pork production will be carried on in addition to the pig-club work.

The enrollment in the pig-club work is approximately 45,000 members. Complete reports on their work for 1917 are not yet at hand, but splendid work has been accomplished, as the pigs exhibited at the various State and county fairs attest. For example, at the three large fairs in Georgia, pig-club members showed 509 pigs and won prizes to the extent of over \$3,200—part of which was in competition with the adult breeders and showmen, as is shown by the winnings at the Georgia-Florida Fair, where pigs belonging to members won two grand championships, one junior championship, and one reserve championship.

At the Louisiana State Fair car lots of fat hogs shipped cooperatively by pig-club members from different parishes or counties were on exhibit, contested for prizes, and were sold to the packers. Oklahoma is planning a similar demonstration at the Fat Stock Show in March. One car lot from each county in the work is the aim of the agent. Oregon reports an exceptionally strong exhibit of 180 pigclub members' hogs. Splendid and effective exhibits were made in every State in the work.

Needless to say, some of the best work done is never reported, owing to failure of the member to keep satisfactory records. There are doubtless boys in the background who do work quite as definite and constructive as do those who get into the limelight. The faithful, plodding member who perseveres in spite of obstacles and discouragement and completes his or her club work, even though the pig be the veriest scrub, has accomplished much in the way of character building and will be a better man or woman as a result of the effort made.

People familiar with the pig-club work realize that it means more than the mere feeding of a pig to make a few dollars' profit. They are realizing that where the club work is followed to its fruition it is a means of creating and broadening the vision, of awakening spirit, and of character building. The improvement in the quality of the breeding stock; the increased interest in live-stock production; the improved methods and the greater resulting profits are important factors in the economic and social development of the sections in which pig-club work is carried on.

AIMS FOR 1918. ·

In view of the great success attending the work thus far, and because of the great need of increasing the production of pork and pork products, the department is seeking to enroll 200,000 boys and girls as "junior soldiers of the commissary" for 1918. It is expected that every boy who can do so will raise one or more pigs for Uncle Sam and thus furnish the meat supply for a soldier.

Note.—The Animal Husbandry Division, Bureau of Animal Industry, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., will supply literature pertaining to the detail of club work or answer questions concerning it.

COOPERATIVE MARKETING—WHERE? WHEN? HOW?

By C. E. Bassett, Specialist in Cooperative Organization, and O. B. Jesness, Assistant in Cooperative Organization, Bureau of Markets.

RAPID development of cooperative marketing activ-A ities among the farmers of the United States has taken place during recent years. The popular faith in cooperation as a means of improving marketing methods has been very strong and has brought about the formation of a large number of associations. Indeed, the term cooperation has been employed in such a way that many people have come to believe that a cooperative organization offers a solution for almost all difficulties encountered in the marketing of farm products. While a great deal may be accomplished through organized effort when it is properly applied and correctly employed, too much emphasis can not be placed on the fact that cooperation is not automatic and is not a panacea for all the ills of mankind. Faith in the possibilities of cooperation is essential to its success, but this faith must be expressed in deeds as well as in words.

WHERE AND WHEN COOPERATIVE MARKETING SHOULD BE UNDERTAKEN.

CONDITIONS NECESSARY FOR SUCCESS.

Under certain conditions, a farmers' cooperative marketing organization may be the means of improving the business conditions of its members. Cooperation may be considered a remedy which, when properly applied at the proper time to the proper patient, may be expected to give relief. When the farmers of a district undertake cooperative activities, they must have faith in the remedy. Each must be willing to lay aside his individual desires and take the whole remedy, the bitter portions as well as the sweet. This means that each must be willing to surrender a portion of his freedom of action; must abide by the will of the majority; must be willing to bind himself to a definite contract and then live up to that agreement, even though there may come a time when to do so would result in a temporary loss.

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Each member must realize that the management of the business must be intrusted to one or more persons selected because of superior skill and experience, and that the management can not be expected to accomplish satisfactory results if it is hampered by the interference of those whom it attempts to serve. If the members of a cooperative organization do not feel that the men to whom they have intrusted the management are better qualified to know what to do and when and how to do it than they themselves, why have such men been employed? When we consider how seldom the management of a farmers' cooperative association has any real control of the business, the wonder is that the success of such organizations has been as great as it has.

Not only must the personal attitude of the members be favorable to a business plan of organization, but local conditions must be such as to make organized marketing advisable. Too many cooperative organizations are formed when conditions are not ripe for the undertaking of such an enterprise. Many organizations fail because they are not founded on necessity. Every cooperative organization should result from a widespread demand based on a well-felt need.

Ordinarily, a community which specializes on one or a few products offers a more promising field for a cooperative marketing organization than one which produces small amounts of a large number of different products. A farmer naturally will devote more attention to an organization which markets his principal products than one which handles products which are raised by him as side lines.

If the service rendered by existing marketing agencies is unsatisfactory, a cooperative marketing organization is likely to receive heartier support than if the farmers are satisfied with the existing system. This factor should be given careful consideration when a cooperative organization is proposed. An association should be formed only when it can perform profitably some definite service, for an organization without a definite purpose is not likely to accomplish very much. Prejudice and misconception make a very insecure foundation for cooperative effort.

PRECAUTIONS TO BE OBSERVED.

There are a number of precautions to be observed in the organization of cooperative associations. One of these is

that the demand for organized effort should come from those who unite to form the organization. Another important point to be observed is that the organization should grow from below upward. The mistake frequently is made of attempting to form a large central organization before organized effort in a small way has been tried out successfully and the details of the plan carefully worked out. A number of cooperative organizations fail because of lack of support, and on that account every possible precaution should be taken to hold the members together. Ordinarily a cooperative association should cover only a limited area. If a large territory is included, the membership is scattered and it is more difficult to keep the organization intact.

One of the principal obstacles to successful cooperation is the selfishness of the individual. The success of a cooperative undertaking depends largely on the support it receives from its members. On this account it is important that the members understand clearly the purposes of the organization and the methods by which it expects to accomplish the desired results, in order that they may realize fully the responsibility resting upon them. The members should not be led to expect impossible results from an organization. The making of sweeping claims may serve to attract people to the association and may assist in its organization, but unless the organization is able to come up to expectations these claims are likely to react very strongly against the movement. Each member should understand very clearly that the success of his organization depends upon him and that it is his duty to do his part. Selfishness and petty jealousies have no place in any cooperative undertaking.

Lack of sufficient business to make the operation of a marketing organization practicable has been the cause of many failures. A cooperative marketing association should not be undertaken unless the volume of business available is sufficient to make it worth while. As large a membership as possible should be secured, because there is a direct connection between membership and the support accorded to an organization. Disregard of this fact has resulted in the failure of some organizations.

The attitude of farmers in a community toward cooperative effort can not be ignored in organizing an association. The statement that a cooperative organization must be founded on a definite and well-felt need in order to be successful is true to a large extent at least. If the growers have not reached the stage where they are ready to give up individual effort for cooperative effort, the necessary support to make an organization successful is likely to be absent.

SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS.

There is a close relationship between cooperative marketing organizations and the more general associations formed for educational and social purposes. Many communities are not ready for cooperative marketing activities, and frequently a social or educational organization in such a neighborhood is invaluable in teaching its members the value of cooperation and how to cooperate. Just as a child creeps before it learns to walk and run, so a community has to understand the fundamentals and the requirements of cooperation before great results can be obtained from organization. An educational or social association, when properly directed, furnishes an excellent place for a full and free discussion of organization and marketing problems and in this way lays the foundation for future cooperative marketing activities.

HOW TO ORGANIZE A COOPERATIVE ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY SURVEY.

When the organization of a cooperative purchasing or marketing association comes up for consideration, it is advisable to conduct a preliminary survey of the local situation in order to ascertain whether or not conditions are ripe for cooperative work. Since organizations founded on a wellfelt need are more likely to be successful than organizations which are not, the need for a cooperative organization should be ascertained in the preliminary survey, as well as the amount of business available, and the attitude of the people in the community toward cooperative undertakings. The existing agencies which the proposed organization intends to replace or supplement should be studied, to determine whether they are rendering satisfactory service, and information should be gathered relative to the outlets for the products to be marketed and the sources of supplies to be purchased.

OUTSIDE ASSISTANCE.

A community contemplating the formation of a cooperative organization should secure assistance from the outside whenever such assistance seems necessary. Outside assistance, however, should not be depended upon for all the work of organizing, for it is very desirable that those who will become members of the association take an active part in developing the plans. The main purpose of securing assistance from outside sources should be to gain the benefit of information possessed by persons who are experienced in organization matters and who have made a special study of cooperative organization. If personal assistance from the outside can not be secured, it may be possible to obtain considerable information through correspondence. When this is done, detailed information relative to local conditions and the purpose and plans of the proposed organization should be furnished in order that the person addressed may be able to advise intelligently. Specific questions should be asked. because when this is done the exact information desired is more likely to be secured. Helpful information usually can be secured from literature on cooperation. The bulletins issued by the Bureau of Markets of the United States Department of Agriculture and the State agricultural colleges and experiment stations, articles in farm papers, and various well-known books on cooperation will be found helpful.1 Any suggestions secured should be considered, of course, in relation to the local situation and should be modified to suit local needs. While outside assistance often is desirable, the importance of efficient local leadership can not be overestimated. The services of professional "promoters" should be carefully guarded. While enthusiasm is essential it will not take the place of sound business judgment or overcome unfavorable local conditions.

PRELIMINARY MEETINGS.

Before forming a cooperative organization, it is well to hold preliminary meetings, at which the question of organizing can be discussed, in order to prevent rushing into any

¹ U. S. Department of Agriculture Bulletin 547 contains a selected list of references on cooperation.

ill-advised ventures and to give ample opportunity for a careful development of the plan of organization. Preliminary meetings should also serve a very useful purpose in acquainting the farmers of the community with the details of the proposed organization and in giving them an understanding of the limitations, as well as the possibilities, of cooperation, and the requirements for the success of a cooperative enterprise. Preliminary meetings also provide a means for securing committees around which the activities may be centered. Thus there may be one committee on organization to develop the plans for the association, another committee to make a survey of local conditions and needs, another committee to assist in procuring a large attendance at the meetings, and so on.

ORGANIZATION MEETING.

After the question of organizing has been considered carefully, a meeting should be held to decide whether or not an organization is advisable. A special effort should be made to secure a large attendance at this meeting. The plans. scope, and purpose of the organization should be discussed. and a free expression of opinion should be sought in order that every one present may have an opportunity to suggest improvements. After the discussion a vote should be taken on the question of organizing. If the vote is favorable, steps should be taken to bring about the formation of an association. If a membership committee has not already been selected, one should be appointed for the purpose of creating interest and securing a large membership. The organization committee should be instructed to draw up complete plans and prepare a set of suitable by-laws. The date of the final organization meeting should be decided upon before adjourning.

FINAL MEETING.

At the final meeting the plans of organization and bylaws which have been prepared by the committee should be given careful consideration. It is advisable first to read the by-laws through without interruption, so that those present will have a general idea of their contents, and then to take them up section by section, giving ample opportunity for - discussion. After each section of an article has been considered, a vote on that article may be taken while the points under discussion are still fresh in the minds of those present. After each article has been voted on, the matter of voting on the by-laws as a whole is a mere formality.

FORMS OF ORGANIZATION.

An association may be formed with capital stock or it may be a nonstock organization. The capital stock form of organization is the common form employed by farmers' organizations in many lines of business. The principal advantage of a stock organization is that the capital required may be secured more readily through the sale of shares of stock than through other means. This is one reason for the large number of stock organizations. Another reason is that the laws in most States do not provide for the incorporation of nonstock cooperative purchasing and marketing associations. The capital stock form, however, has some decided disadvantages. It is difficult to keep the shares of stock entirely in the hands of patrons of the company, and there is an everpresent danger that persons not directly interested in the principal purpose of the organization may gain control of the business, if it becomes sufficiently prosperous to be attractive to capital. Where organizations are formed with capital stock, the stock dividends should be limited to a fair rate of interest on the capital invested, and, instead of allowing each share a vote, each member should have one vote. The association should also regulate the transfer of shares of stock.

In the case of the nonstock cooperative organization there is less danger of the association being turned into a mere profit-making organization than there is with capital stock associations. One difficulty with the nonstock form for organizations which require considerable capital at the outset is the difficulty of securing the necessary funds. Whatever initial funds are necessary must be secured through membership fees, dues, loans, or contributions. The importance of the nonstock form of organization is emphasized by section 6 of the Clayton Act. Exemption from the operation of the United States antitrust laws is provided by the

Clayton Act for cooperative agricultural organizations which meet certain requirements. One of these requirements is that the organization must be without capital stock.

PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATION.

The fact that many farmers' organizations are cooperative in name only shows that the underlying principles of cooperation are not clear in the minds of many. In drawing up a plan of organization these principles should be kept in mind in order that a truly cooperative association may result. A cooperative organization is a democratic institution in which it is customary for all members to have equal voting power, while in a noncooperative stock company each share usually has a vote. Thus the basis of representation in one is men, while in the other it is money. Another principle usually followed by cooperative organizations is to limit the financial interests of individuals as a further safeguard against allowing one member to gain control of the organization. It is customary for cooperative associations to admit as members all who desire and are qualified to become members and agree to abide by the rules. While noncooperative stock companies distribute their profits in the form of dividends on their capital stock, cooperative organizations having capital stock make a practice of limiting the dividends to a fair rate of interest on the capital invested and distribute the surplus, if any, on the basis of the business done through the association.

ROCHDALE PLAN OF ORGANIZATION.

Persons interested in cooperative associations frequently refer to the "Rochdale plan" of organization. Briefly, this takes its name from an organization started at Rochdale, England, in 1844, by a small group of flannel weavers. This organization followed the true principles of cooperation as outlined above. The term "Rochdale plan" often is used to describe an association which is organized and operated in accordance with these principles.

¹ See U. S. Department of Agriculture Bulletin 547; and Office of Markets and Rural Organization Service and Regulatory Announcements No. 20.

BY-LAWS.1

The by-laws of a cooperative organization are very important, and great care should be taken in framing them. They should furnish the organization with a complete working plan. Among the factors in regard to which provisions should be made in the by-laws, may be mentioned the following: The objects of the organization, membership requirements, fiscal year, meetings, quorum, board of directors and officers, manager, membership fee, capital stock or any other method of financing to be employed, grading and inspection of products marketed, contracts and agreements, duties and rights of members, expenses and payments, distribution of savings, auditing, purchasing supplies, and amendments.

INCORPORATION.

Incorporation usually is advisable for cooperative marketing organizations on account of the advantages to be gained thereby. The method of incorporating an association is not the same in all States, and it is impossible, therefore, to outline the exact procedure to be followed. Each association should find out the requirements of the incorporation laws of its State. Some of the States have more than one act providing for the incorporation of associations, in which case the one most adapted to the needs of the association should be selected and the by-laws drawn accordingly. A competent. local attorney will be of assistance in furnishing the necessary information relative to the procedure to be followed in incorporating an association and also may render valuable assistance in drawing up the articles of incorporation and by-laws. In case incorporation is decided upon, a committee may be selected for this purpose at the time of organization.

After the association has been incorporated, the by-laws have been adopted, and directors and officers have been selected, the organization is ready to engage actively in the business for which it has been formed.

¹ A suggested form of by-laws for a farmers' cooperative marketing association may be obtained by applying to the Bureau of Markets, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

A WASTED SUGAR SUPPLY.

By E. F. PHILLIPS,

Apiculturist, Bureau of Entomology.

THE AMOUNT of nectar secreted by the multitude of flowers from coast to coast is large beyond our comprehension. Secreted to the end of attracting insect visitors in order that cross-pollination may be effected, this nectar is poured out freely by hundreds of species. The percentage of sugar in nectar varies with different plant species and also with climatic differences, but it is well within the bounds of truth to state that the total sugar thus secreted far exceeds the amount of all sugars consumed by the American people now obtained from cane and sugar beets.

Unfortunately this nectar soon disappears as the flowers wither and is lost to human use. Any method of conserving this abundant resource must be through an agency which is ever on the alert for each fresh supply. Individuals of a multitude of insect species seek out this nectar for their food, and as many of these insects are economically valuable, the nectar they consume is turned to a useful purpose when viewed from the standpoint of human economy. Of all these nectar-seeking species, however, the honevbee alone is capable of being used by man as an instrument for collecting this sugar supply, and even this useful species can scarcely be considered as an example of brilliant efficiency when viewed solely from man's selfish point of view. It is the object of this article to show that beekeeping may be increased so as profitably and economically to help us save more of this now wasted sugar.

THE HONEY CROP.

In times of war or other emergency our normal supply of sugar may be curtailed, and in the present crisis the American people would fare better if beekeeping had been more fully developed. The present honey crop of the United States rarely exceeds 250,000,000 pounds. That the country

produces even this much is unknown to most people, for, while honey was the chief form of sugar used in ancient times, the ease of getting cane or beet sugar has placed honey in the background. Now that our sugar supply is reduced by reason of supplying our allies with part of the sugar they need, the demand for honey has increased, not only domestically but for export. It is now openly a matter of regret that the United States did not have enough skilled commercial beekeepers to harvest several times the honey crop of 1917.

WHY YIELDS ARE FREQUENTLY SMALL.

It must not be assumed that the only requirement for obtaining honey is to buy some colonies of bees and permit them to forage for nectar. To keep bees profitably requires study, and labor at just the right time. Because of lack of attention, fully half the bees now kept in the United States are virtually useless to their owners, and consequently beekeeping is often condemned as unprofitable. The reasons for the unprofitableness of most colonies of bees will be discussed briefly.

Bees gather nectar for their immediate use, to provide food for the developing brood, and to provide stores for periods when no nectar is available. Except in the extreme South, there is no nectar available during the winter season, and provision must be made to carry the colony over this period, for, unlike other insects, the honeybee does not hibernate. The amount of honey used by a colony simply to maintain its existence during the year is large. Just how much is used by an average colony has never been determined with accuracy, and there are many complicating factors which make this a difficult question to solve. It will perhaps not be far from the truth to assume that this amount is at least 400 pounds.

On this assumption, then, every colony must gather its 400 pounds before there is any honey for the beekeeper. The honey removed for human use is usually spoken of as "surplus" by beekeepers, and this is literally its correct name. When weather conditions are unusually favorable for nectar secretion the task of gathering this amount is easy, and under such circumstances there is some surplus for every bee-



FIG. 1.—POOR EQUIPMENT, POOR MANAGEMENT, POOR RESULTS.

The owner of these bees claims that beekeeping does not pay, yet the bees insisted on storing honey even outside the "gum."



FIG. 2.—GOOD EQUIPMENT, POOR MANAGEMENT, POOR RESULTS.

This apiary was almost destroyed by disease before the trouble was discovered.



FIG. 1.—GOOD EQUIPMENT, GOOD MANAGEMENT, GOOD RESULTS.

From apiaries such as this the country's honey crop is secured.



FIG. 2.—WINTER PACKING CASE FOR FOUR COLONIES OF BEES.

It is impossible to overpack bees in winter.

keeper. In most seasons, however, nectar is not secreted so freely, and only the beekeeper who properly manipulates his bees gets a surplus. Probably in an average season, for the United States as a whole, the surplus honey obtained by good beekeepers will scarcely exceed 50 pounds per colony.

This average of 50 pounds surplus represents, then, only one-ninth of the nectar gathered by the bees. In such an average season an apiary of 100 colonies may gather nectar equivalent to $22\frac{1}{2}$ tons of honey, whereas the "honey crop" or surplus honey will be only $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons. That 100 colonies of bees can find nectar sufficient for $22\frac{1}{2}$ tons of honey within a radius of about 2 miles will give one some idea of the amount of sugar available in the form of nectar. This amount is doubtless much below the actual sugar at hand, for when nectar is flowing freely bees do not get it all. Furthermore, in many places more than 50 pounds surplus is obtained, and often more than 100 colonies can be kept profitably in one place.

In the face of these facts it is regrettable to find so many beekeepers who fail to get even the small percentage which belongs to the beekeeper. There are parts of the United States where nearly 90 per cent of all colonies of bees are in hollow logs (Pl. LXVIII, fig. 1) or plain square boxes, in which combs and bees can not be handled. There are few parts of the country where the box hive is not found, and probably one-third of all the bees in the country are so housed. In this case both equipment and management are poor and the energy of the bees is misdirected.

Even of those who keep their bees in modern hives with movable frames, the vast majority do not get the full crop. By failing to control swarming, by providing insufficient room for storage, or by lack of proper care in winter their crop is often reduced one-half or more. The equipment is good, but the management is poor and much of the energy of the bees is wasted.

GOOD MANAGEMENT THE PRICE OF SUCCESS.

The bright side of the picture is seen in the minority of apiaries where the bees are properly housed in good hives, where swarming is controlled, where surplus room is given on time and in abundance, and where the bees receive adequate protection and care in winter. (Pl. LXIX, figs. 1, 2.) Beekeepers who so manipulate their bees receive an adequate return for their labor, and since it is only the good beekeepers who get all the available surplus, it may be safely stated that surplus honey is directly traceable to study and care. Many good beekeepers in the United States receive a good living from their bees and have incomes equal to that of a prosperous farmer in other lines of agriculture. This results from properly directing the energy of the bees.

The productive colony of bees may be figuratively likened to a machine which consumes in friction 90 per cent of the energy applied. This is not a high degree of efficiency when measured by this standard. The colony in a box hive, then, is likened to such a machine in bad repair and with no attention, in which all the energy is used simply to drive the wheels. Such a machine is totally unproductive. The properly housed colony, which is badly manipulated, is, then, comparable to a machine in good repair but in the hands of a poor mechanic. Such a machine may do fair work for a time, but the mechanic fails to do the necessary work at the right time and the machine is only occasionally productive. Finally, the productive colony is like a good machine in the hands of a good mechanic. While energy is consumed simply to run the machine, the good mechanic does the right work at the right time and obtains the greatest possible reward in the machine's output. Such a figurative comparison must not be carried too far and is used here only to point out the lamentable waste in much presentday beekeeping.

SOURCES OF LOSS.

Of the major sources of loss the greatest is the death and weakening of colonies in winter. By starvation or exhaustion of vitality the average winter loss of most localities is fully 10 per cent. Strangely enough this loss is practically as high in the South as in the far North. An industry which can continue to exist while suffering a 10 per cent loss annually must be one of great promise if this loss can be reduced. Furthermore, of those colonies which remain in the spring, the population is often lamentably reduced. Nor-

mally no brood is reared in winter, although abnormal and unseasonal brood rearing is so common as to be considered almost normal by many beekeepers. The reduction in numbers and especially in vitality of the bees still remaining makes it impossible for many colonies to gather a surplus from the earlier nectar sources, and much honey is lost while the colony is regaining its strength. It is not at all unusual for the honey crop to be reduced one-half by poor wintering. Yet the winter loss can be reduced readily to less than 1 per cent.

A second source of loss is from two infectious diseases of the brood of bees, European foulbrood and American foulbrood. Within the past few years many of the States have provided for apiary inspection, and in all but a few States these diseases are sufficiently controlled to permit commercial beekeepers to conduct their work with virtually full returns. In spite of such success the annual loss of colonies from disease is probably \$2,000,000, and many beginners in beekeeping are discouraged by the disease situation. This source of loss is therefore a serious one. (Pl. LXVIII, fig. 2.)

When a colony becomes populous during a good honey flow it normally makes preparation to swarm, thus dividing itself into two colonies. While this instinct is advantageous to wild bees, it results in a reduction in the honey crop if the division occurs, as it usually does, just before or during the time when nectar is especially abundant. Rarely can swarming be entirely prevented, even with the best of care, but the proper measure of a beekeeper's skill is his success in reducing this activity. A failure to attempt this causes untold loss in honey every year, and the methods of swarm prevention and control can be understood only by careful study and experience.

The proper giving of room for surplus honey is important in this connection. It is an unusually good locality in which nectar is abundant all summer and this room must be given at just the right time. This necessitates watchful study of the nectar-producing flowers. It is quite a common practice for beekeepers to put on one "super" for the storage of surplus honey and to wait until this is entirely filled before giving more space. This results in the loss of much honey from lack of storage space, and often too much is stored in

the part of the hive which should be devoted to brood rearing. The proper placing of room for surplus honey requires vigilance and study, and a failure to provide this room on time and in the proper way often may reduce the crop to one-third.

BEEKEEPING AN EXACTING CALLING.

These more common sources of loss are mentioned to show that a failure to make a success of beekeeping almost always results from a lack of study of the needs of the bees, combined with a failure to do things on time. Beekeeping is therefore essentially an industry which requires studious care, and in consequence the proper development of this branch of agriculture necessitates to an unusual degree the dissemination of information of a rather detailed nature. While there are published bulletins and books which contain the needed information, these have not proved adequate in developing beekeeping to the extent that is possible and to a degree which would be profitable.

It is quite possible for the American beekeeping industry to be developed so that the honey crop will be ten times what it is at present. Not only would such a development be valuable in an emergency, such as the present crisis, but in normal times the beekeeping industry can provide a concentrated nutritious food, almost universally liked and assuredly an article of diet preferable to the inferior sirups and jams so commonly used. The beekeeping industry may be the means of conserving a national resource now largely wasted, changing it into nature's own sweet. The raw material is free on every hand; the investment for equipment is small in comparison with other branches of agriculture; the profits are fully commensurate with the study and labor involved. It would seem profitable to stop such a waste of so desirable a supply of sugar. This waste can be prevented only by the education of beekeepers.

WOOL: PRODUCTION, FOREIGN TRADE, SUPPLY, AND CONSUMPTION.

By GEORGE K. HOLMES,

Statistical Scientist, Division of Crop Records, Bureau of Crop Estimates.

WOOL grows on sheep to obstruct the radiation of heat from their bodies, and thus serves to economize their consumption of heat-producing food and conserve their vitality. Millions of the human race have appropriated this body covering of sheep throughout the ages for the same purposes.

In the course of time, as human demands have exceeded the supply of wool, substitutes have been utilized, and thus cotton fiber has become indispensable to most of the population of the world as a substitute for wool, and flax fiber has acquired subordinate importance. For the purpose of conserving body heat, however, wool excels its substitutes, because not only does its woven fabric diminish the radiation of body heat, but its fiber is a poor conductor of heat. So, wool has become a choice fiber for cloth for clothing and for bed covering. Furthermore, wool can be spun into more bulky yarn than cotton or flax, and hence is often preferred for making textile fabrics when thickness is desired, as in the case of carpets. It is true, however, that human habits and fancies with respect to woolen fabrics in various uses have contributed much to the prominence that they occupy.

NUMBER OF SHEEP THROUGHOUT THE WORLD.

Sheep have not multiplied in the world in recent years at so great a rate as has the wool-consuming portion of the human race. Farm management has not provided, perhaps has not been able to provide with economic results, a place for sheep sufficient to maintain undiminished the consumption of wool, and the supply of wool must have been sorely restricted had not great areas of range and cheap pastures been appropriated for sheep feeding in the United States, Argentina, Australia, New Zealand, Russia, Uruguay, and other countries.

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The general fact appears to be that throughout the world sheep are declining in number, not only per capita of population, but absolutely, notwithstanding the utility of these animals in producing both wool and meat.

IN THE UNITED STATES.

The first census report of the number or sheep on farms The censuses for 1840 and 1850 expressly exwas for 1840. cluded spring lambs. In subsequent censuses, to and including the census of 1890, they were not mentioned, and were presumably largely omitted. In 1900 and 1910 spring lambs were included. Sheep on farms grew in number from 19,000,000 in 1840 to 22,500,000 in 1860, to 35,000,000 in 1880, to 36,000,000 in 1890 and to 61,500,000 in 1900, including ranges in 1880 and later. In 1910 the census date was April 15 instead of June 1 as before, and the number of sheep on farms and ranges at the earlier date was 52,450,000. Had the census been taken for June 1, the number would probably have been about 63,000,000 or about 1,500,000 above the number in 1900. Taking the number of sheep, 52,450,000 as reported April 15, 1910, as the base, the number estimated by the Bureau of Crop Estimates has been a declining one to 47,600,000 in 1917, a loss of about 5,-000,000 in seven years. The number increased to 48,900,000 in 1918. Apparently sheep in this country reached their largest number about 1910. The number of sheep not on farms and ranges in 1910 was about 400,000.

SHEEP IN OTHER IMPORTANT COUNTRIES.

As far back as 1887 Algeria had 10,900,000 sheep, but the number declined with great fluctuations to 8,300,000 in 1912.

Argentina had over 43,000,000 sheep in 1914, or nearly 5,000,000 less than are now in the United States. As far back as 1888 the number was 67,000,000. It may be that the maximum number of sheep has not yet been reached, because Argentina has vast areas not now utilized that can be used for sheep grazing.

Australia has experienced great variations in number of sheep. The largest number ever reported was 106,000,000

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in 1891, but there was afterwards a decline, somewhat broken, to 54,000,000 sheep in 1902, or about one-half the number of eleven years previous. A tendency to gain followed 1902, resulting in 93,000,000 sheep in 1911, or a greater number than in any year since 1894, but again there has been a strong decline, so that in 1915 Australia had 70,000,000 sheep. Australia is subject to droughts that are destructive to a large number of sheep in one season, but the great recuperative power of the flocks of that Commonwealth has more than once been demonstrated.

It is estimated that Brazil had 10,700,000 sheep in 1914. This seems to be the only estimate available.

British South Africa, including the Union of South Africa, is a vast region with extensive areas suitable for sheep raising, and hence has been possible the enormous increase of sheep from 16,000,000 in 1904 to 36,000,000 in 1913. This notable progress has been made in spite of droughts and of sheep parasites and diseases.

Canada had 2,600,000 sheep in 1891, 2,500,000 in 1901, 2,200,000 in 1911, all census years, and the estimate for 1917 is 2,000,000. Apparently the high-water mark was reached in 1908, for which year the estimate is 2,800,000 sheep.

According to the census of 1902, Mexico had in that year 3,400,000 sheep. There is no information for any other year.

New Zealand is an important sheep-producing country that has steadily increased its sheep, although fluctuations are apparent. From 1891 to 1917 the sheep increased from 18,000,000 to 25,000,000. This industry seems to be strongly established in New Zealand and offers no evidence of weakening.

In Asiatic Russia 36,000,000 sheep were estimated for 1908, and the estimate for 1913 is 3,000,000 larger. In European Russia the estimated number of sheep was nearly 50,000,000 from 1890 to 1904; in 1905 Northern Caucasia was added to the area for which estimates were made, and this increased the number to 53,400,000. From that year a decline has followed, with some fluctuations, until in 1913 the estimate fell to 41,000,000. In the entire Russian Empire the number of sheep declined from about 89,000,000

in 1903-1908 to 80,000,000, or 10 per cent, by the time that the European war began.

The census of 1900 found 18,600,000 sheep in Uruguay and that of 1908 reported 26,300,000. No information has been obtained for any subsequent year, but the growth of the sheep industry in Uruguay has been conspicuous and makes that country prominent among the sheep countries of the world.

Notwithstanding its severity and extent, the European war has not prevented a large degree of conservation of sheep in the belligerent European countries that have not been mentioned, yet there has been a perceptible decline in the number of sheep in those countries since the war began.

The foregoing survey of prominent sheep-producing countries confirms the general statement previously made that the sheep of the world are declining in number, not only per capita of the population but absolutely.

PRODUCTION OF WOOL IN THE WORLD.

Many difficulties are encountered in making a compilation of the world's production of wool, but, subject to imperfections on this account, such compilations have been made by the Bureau of Crop Estimates for 1901–1906, and by the National Association of Wool Manufacturers for 1908–1916. For 1901 the total for all countries for which estimates could be made, and these countries produce almost all of the world's wool, was 2,807,000,000 pounds. By 1909 the quantity had increased to 2,953,000,000 pounds, and by 1911 to 2,971,000,00 pounds, and this is the largest total production reported. Since 1911 the world's wool production has steadily declined to 2,717,000,000 pounds in 1916.

Within the period covered by the record Australia has been the most prominent country in wool production, and its clip has amounted to about one-fifth of the world's total until in 1916 the fraction fell considerably below one-fifth on account of great loss of sheep because of drought. Australia and New Zealand together have produced from 21 to 30 per cent of the world's total during the period under review.

Argentina follows next after Australia in order of importance in wool production at the beginning of the period under review, its fraction of the world's total being 18 per cent in 1901, with decline to 13 per cent in 1906, followed by great loss to the present time.

The Russian Empire produced nearly as much wool as Argentina did in 1901, its fraction of the world's clip being 15 per cent in that year. The fraction was as high as 17 per cent in 1902 and 1903, but in recent years it has been steady at about 14 to 15 per cent.

At the beginning of this period the United States occupied fourth place as a wool producer with a fraction of 11 per cent of the world's production, and the fraction has remained quite constant at 10 to 12 per cent since 1901.

A comparison of the prominent wool-producing countries in 1916 finds that Australia and New Zealand combined produced 25 per cent of the world's wool clip, the Russian Empire 15 per cent, the United States 12 per cent, Argentina 6 per cent, the Union of South Africa 6 per cent, Uruguay 5 per cent, the United Kingdom 4.5 per cent, Turkey in Asia 3.3 per cent, and France 2.8 per cent. The high degree of geographic concentration of the wool production of the world appears when it is stated that Argentina, Australasia, the Russian Empire, and the United States produced 56 per cent of the world's wool in 1916, and the geographic concentration would be emphasized if the principal producing areas of these countries were defined.

Among the grand divisions of the earth, Europe was most prominent in 1916 in wool production and had 32 per cent of the world's wool clip to its credit. The fraction for Oceania, including Australia and New Zealand, was 25 per cent, for South America 14 per cent, for North America 12 per cent, for Asia 10 per cent, and for Africa 8 per cent.

IN THE UNITED STATES.

Instatistics bearing upon wool production in the United States it was not until 1895 that an attempt was made to establish the number of sheep of shearing age, but with poor success until the census of 1900 was taken. Of the total number of sheep on farms and ranges in that year 64.8 per cent were of shearing age, and in 1910, the following census year, 73.4 per cent. In recent years the percentage of the total sheep that stands for those of shearing age is about 71 to 74. At the present

time over 35,000,000 sheep supply the wool clip of this country, and this number is lower than for any year, except 1916 to 1918, at least as far back as 1900, when sheep of shearing age were first trustworthily indicated.

Pounds of wool produced.—It may not be easy for any two estimators or compilers of the wool production of this country to agree, for the reason that they may choose different factors or different authorities, or adopt different processes. The statistics accepted for the preparation of this article have been provided as follows: Bureau of the Census—1840, 1850, 1860, 1870, range and pulled wool excluded, 1880, spring clip only, 1890, 1900, 1909, fleece-wool production on farms and ranges to which have been added pulled wool estimates made by the National Association of Wool Manufacturers or approved by the Bureau of the Census; Bureau of Crop Estimates—1871—1879, 1881—1889, 1891, 1892, 1914—1917, range and pulled wool apparently included throughout; National Association of Wool Manufacturers—1893—1899, 1901—1908, 1910—1913.

From 1840 to 1870 the wool clip on farms, the range clip and pulled wool being excluded, increased from 36,000,000 to 100,000,000 pounds. In 1871 the wool production, including range and pulled wool, amounted to 160,000,000 pounds; by 1877 the amount had reached 200,000,000 pounds; by 1884, 300,000,000 pounds; by 1900, 305,000,000 pounds; and by 1909, 330,000,000 pounds, the highest quantity reported by any census. Estimates for years since 1909 declined to 289,000,000 pounds for 1917, and it is necessary to go back to 1890 to find a lower census production. The average annual production of the 10 years 1905–1914 was 306,500,000 pounds, and this average is larger than the production for the years that follow.

Average weight per fleece.—By the census process the average weight of a fleece is obtained by dividing the total weight of fleece wool by the number of fleeces. By the process of the Bureau of Crop Estimates and of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers the average weight is directly ascertained by States and the United States average is a weighted one. From 1840 to 1917 the average fleece weight has increased in this country 3.8 times. This expresses in numerical form what might be an elaborate story of

efforts to improve the breeds of sheep, and to acquire those that produce more wool as well as that of finer quality.

The average fleece weight of 1840 was only 1.85 pounds; 10 years later it had grown to 2.42 pounds, and by 1866 the average had reached 3.25 pounds. When 1880 arrived the average fleece weight was 4.80 pounds, and the estimate for 1884 was 5.20 pounds; 6.38 pounds were reached in 1893; the average for 1900 was 6.29 pounds; for 1909 it was 6.84 pounds. The estimate for 1911 almost touches 7 pounds, and the one for 1917 is exactly 7 pounds, the largest ever estimated.

In the decade 1895-1904 the mean fleece weight was 6.38 pounds, and in the following decade the average was 6.76 pounds; for 1915 the estimate is 6.80 pounds, for 1916 it is 6.86 pounds, and for 1917 it is 7 pounds.

Production per capita of the population.—The production of wool in this country in relation to the number of the population may now be examined. Pulled and range wool being included, the annual average wool production for the 10 years 1875—1884 per capita of the population was 4.70 pounds, and the average increased in the following decade to 4.74 pounds. A period of decided decline ensued and in the 10-year period 1895—1904 the per capita average production fell to 3.79 pounds, succeeded by the still lower average of 3.35 pounds in the 10 years 1905—1914. The average for the single year 1914 was 2.9 pounds; for 1915, 1916, and 1917, 2.8 pounds.

The production of wool in this country reached its highest point, absolutely, apparently in 1909, since which time there has been a decline from each year to the next, with the exception of two years. Relative to population, wool production has declined more emphatically, as the per capita averages above mentioned indicate. At the present time this country's wool production per capita is scant 60 per cent of what it was on the average in the 10 years 1875–1884.

Production as a percentage of supply.—The supply of wool to this country consists not only of the production within the country, but also of the gross imports less reexports. It is important to know the relationship between the supply and the production. On account of stocks held at the beginning and end of each year, the yearly computation of

this relationship, without taking account of stocks, often produces erratic results. This error, however, may be almost entirely eliminated by extending the computation to the total of, say 10 years. Upon doing this, it plainly appears that wool production in this country greatly declined from 77 per cent of the supply in 1875–1884 to 53 per cent in 1895–1904, followed by some recovery to 56 per cent in 1905–1914. The imports used in these computations include estimates of the rew wool contained in such fabrics in the foreign trade as permit estimates.

A comparison for the same period may be made with the supply of raw wool. Of this supply, the production was 76.7 per cent in the 10 years, 1875–1884, and the ratio declined to 52.5 per cent in 1895–1904, followed by a contrary movement to 56.3 per cent in the following 10 years.

Percentage of the consumption.—Still more important is it to know the relationship between the production of wool and the quantity consumed. As nearly as it is possible to estimate the consumption of wool in this country, such consumption much exceeds the production. In the endeavor to include an estimate of the raw wool contained in imported fabrics and to exclude the raw wool contained in exported ones, it is not possible to determine this consumption continuously during a long period of years. For the four years 1911–1914, the production of wool was 61.1 per cent of the consumption of domestic and foreign wool.

If the comparison be confined to the consumption of raw wool, it is possible to extend it so as to cover a much longer period of time. Of the consumption of raw wool, the production was 79.4 per cent in the 10 years 1875–1884, 70.2 per cent in the following 10 years, 62 per cent in the 10 years next following, and 59.5 per cent in 1905–1914.

IMPORT RECORD FOR PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

The main features relating to the production of wool have now been touched upon briefly. During recent years the number of sheep has declined in this country, and also the production of wool, both absolutely and per capita of population. At the same time the number of sheep and the production of wool are declining throughout the world, although exceptions may be found in a country here and there. A majority of the sheep in principal countries belong to the range and to cheap pastures.

What may be regarded as the world's import trade in wool increased from 1900 to 1912, when the largest international wool movement, as recorded, was made. The total for 1900 was 1,566,000,000 pounds, and the total for 1912 was 2,572,000,000 pounds. In the following year the total declined slightly and in 1914 it declined enormously on account of the beginning of the European war and fell to 1,436,000,000 pounds. It is to be borne in mind that some of the wool that figures in the import trade is duplicated in statement, as, for instance, when Argentine wool is imported into England and reshipped to the United States.

Prior to the present war, France led all countries in magnitude of wool imports, the quantity beginning the period under review with 418,000,000 pounds in 1900, and reaching as much as 623,000,000 pounds in 1909. The United Kingdom follows France in order of importance as an importer of wool under prewar conditions, having received 382,000,000 pounds in 1900, and as much as 889,000,000 pounds in 1915. Germany stands third in order of importance before the present war, with wool imports ranging from 346,000,000 pounds in 1900 to 517,000,000 pounds in 1912. Fourth in order of importance is the United States, and Belgium fifth (fourth, in place of the United States, in 1910–1913). Russia was added to the list of countries that imported more than 100,000,000 pounds of wool in 1910 and became the sixth country in order of importance.

FOR THE UNITED STATES.

In compiling the imports of wool into the United States the reexports have been subtracted from the gross imports. A large quantity of wool has at times come into this country in woven fabrics and an attempt has been made to estimate the quantity of wool in such fabrics. The process undoubtedly is crudely performed, but the error, although it may be considerable as a percentage of the wool imported in fabric form, becomes much smaller as a percentage of the total wool imports including raw wool. Whatever the facts may be, raw wool has been kept separate in the compilation

from the wool in the manufactured form. The manufactures of wool mentioned in the import statistics for which estimates of raw wool have been made are the classes of cloths, women's and children's dress goods, yarn, and tops. When a fiscal year is mentioned it is one beginning and not ending in the year specified.

Raw and manufactured wool, the latter estimated to the extent above mentioned, were imported to the amount of 112,000,000 pounds in 1861, but after 1866 the quantity was usually much below 100,000,000 pounds until the imports exceeded that quantity in 1883 and in nearly all subsequent years. The imports reached 205,000,000 pounds in 1891, 348,000,000 pounds in 1894, 535,000,000 pounds in 1895, 701,000,000 pounds in 1896, and that was by far the largest amount of wool imports ever received in this country in any one year. Since that time these imports have usually ranged between about 150,000,000 and 300,000,000 pounds until 1914, when the imports reached 369,000,000 pounds, followed by 555,000,000 pounds in 1915, and 392,000,000 pounds in 1916.

By 10-year averages the imports of raw and of manufactured wool as far as estimated amounted to 82,000,000 pounds annually as the average of 1865–1874; 71,000,000 pounds, of 1875–1884; 197,000,000 pounds, of 1885–1894; 259,000,000 pounds, of 1895–1904; and after that period the average declined to 232,000,000 pounds in 1905–1914.

The largest quantity of raw wool ever imported into this country in one year was 524,000,000 pounds in 1915; second in order in 1916 with 364,000,000 pounds; and third in order is 1896 with 347,000,000 pounds.

As far back as 1840 some 15,000,000 pounds of raw wool were imported. From 1849 to 1854 the annual average imports were 21,000,000 pounds, during the 10 years 1855–1864 they were 41,000,000 pounds, in the next 10-year period the average was 57,000,000 pounds, followed by 61,000,000 pounds in the next, and by continuous increase to 209,000,000 pounds per year in 1905–1914.

The raw wool contained in cloths and dress goods averaged as high as 82,000,000 pounds in 1895–1904 and as low as 10,000,000 pounds in 1875–1884.

During a few years before the European war the clothing wool was imported into this country almost entirely from Argentina, Australia, and the United Kingdom; combing wool, mostly from the United Kingdom, with much subordinate contributions from Argentina, Canada, Peru, and Turkey in Europe; carpet wool, chiefly from China, Russia in Europe, and the United Kingdom, with secondary accessions from Argentina, British India, France, Russia in Asia, and Turkey in Asia.

Percentage of production.—The imports of raw and manufactured wool, as far as the latter has been estimated, have had a wide range of numerical relationship to the national production of wool. As far back as the 10-year period 1875–1884 these imports were 30 per cent of the production, and the ratio increased to 90 per cent in 1895–1904, but during the 10 years 1905–1914 the ratio fell to 78 per cent, or more than three-quarters of the national production. In the following year, 1915, the ratio reached 194 per cent of the production, followed by 136 per cent of the production in 1916. From 1914 to 1916 the imports of wool exceeded the quantity of the domestic production, and this statement is good for only three preceding years, 1894–1896.

If raw wool alone is considered, its imports, by 10-year periods, have uninterruptedly increased in relation to production from 26 per cent in 1875-1884 to 68 per cent in 1905-1914. For the single year 1915 the imports of raw wool were 184 per cent of the production or nearly double, and in 1916, 126 per cent.

Percentage of supply.—Of the supply of wool or the production plus the imports less reexports, the imports were as low as 23 per cent in 1875–1884, including estimates of wool in the mentioned imported manufactures. The fraction reached almost one-half of the national supply, or 47.5 per cent, in 1895–1904, followed by 44 per cent in 1905–1914. More than one-half and as much as two-thirds of the national supply was imported yearly from 1914 to 1916.

If wool in manufactures is excluded, the raw wool imports were 20.7 per cent of the raw wool supply in 1875–1884, and the ratio increased continuously to 40.6 per cent in 1905–1914.

NATIONAL SUPPLY OF WOOL.

The national supply of wool, including wool in imported manufactures as far as estimated, has increased from 304,000,000 pounds, the yearly average for 1875–1884, to 546,000,000 pounds in 1895–1904, after which there was a slight decline to 544,000,000 pounds in 1905–1914. The unprecedented supply of 841,000,000 pounds was reached in 1915, while for 1914 the quantity was 659,000,000 pounds, and for 1916, 680,000,000 pounds.

Raw wool alone being under consideration, the supply averaged 294,000,000 pounds yearly in 1875–1884, and the amount grew steadily to 516,000,000 pounds in 1905–1914, followed by a supply of 810,000,000 pounds in 1915, and 653,000,000 pounds in 1916.

PER CAPITA SUPPLY.

Undoubtedly the per capita supply of wool in this country has generally declined since the 10-year period 1885–1894, during which period the annual average was 7.89 pounds. In the next 10-year period the average fell to 7.22 pounds, while in 1905–1914 there was a conspicuous drop to 5.96 pounds per capita. The per capita supply of 8.39 pounds in 1915 was the highest since 1896. From 1894 to 1896 the per capita supply increased from 9.88 to 13.75 pounds. These averages have been equaled at no time. The foregoing averages include imported manufactured wool as far as estimated.

The raw wool supply per capita averaged 5.92 pounds in 1875–1884, and increased to 6.75 pounds in 1885–1894, after which it fell to 5.64 pounds in 1905–1914. The per capita averages of raw wool for 1915 and 1916 were 8.08 and 6.41 pounds, respectively.

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC WOOL.

According to the definition of domestic exports, they are goods produced or manufactured in this country from either domestic or imported raw materials and which are shipped to foreign countries. Foreign exports or reexports are goods which have been imported into this country either for reexport or for consumption and are afterwards exported,

having undergone no change in form or condition or enhancement in value by the application of labor in the United States. These reexports should not be combined with domestic exports in compilation, in order that the statement for domestic exports may not be impaired, but they should be subtracted from imports in order that the net imports entering into the uses of this country may be known.

CHIEF EXPORTING COUNTRIES IN THE WORLD.

Since 1903 Australia has been the principal wool-exporting country of the world. It held this place in 1900, but in 1901-1903 it was displaced by Argentina. In 1900 Australia exported 336,000,000 pounds of wool; in 1901, 452,000,000 pounds; in 1906, 523,000,000 pounds; in 1907, 638,000,000 pounds; and the highest wool export of that country was reached in 1910 with 734,000,000 pounds. Since that year the quantity has declined continuously to 603,000,000 pounds in 1913, and 414,000,000 pounds in 1914.

Argentina's wool exports were 223,000,000 pounds in 1900; 503,000,000 pounds in 1901, and this export has not since been equaled. On the contrary, the exported quantity has on the whole declined until in 1905 it was 421,000,000 pounds; in 1909, 390,000,000 pounds; in 1911, 291,000,000 pounds; in 1913, 265,000,000 pounds; and in 1915 and 1916, 259,000,000 pounds each year.

Third in order of magnitude is New Zealand, whose wool exports in 1900 amounted to 141,000,000 pounds; in 1910, to 212,000,000 pounds; and after that year a little under two hundred million pounds, except that the exports of 1914 were 227,000,000 pounds, and of 1915 a little over 200,000,000 pounds.

The wool exports of British South Africa have rapidly increased from 28,000,000 pounds in 1900, and in recent years have nearly equaled those of New Zealand.

Uruguay has maintained a large wool export since 1900, the quantity for that year being 59,000,000 pounds; the quantity rose above one hundred million pounds in 1908, and equaled 178,000,000 pounds in 1912, but a decline followed to 98,000,000 pounds in 1914.

The total wool exports of all countries amounted to 1,166,000,000 pounds in 1900, followed by increase to

1,671,000,000 pounds in the following year. By 1907 the total had risen to 1,888,000,000 pounds, and by 1912 to 2,359,000,000 pounds, the largest total ever reached, followed by a decline to 2,079,000,000 pounds in 1913, and 1,493,000,000 pounds in 1914.

Thus it appears that the international movement of wool during the period under review was on the whole a progressive one until 1912, since which year the decline has been very large. It is to be borne in mind that the export statistics of many countries include large quantities of imports, and consequently there is considerable duplication in the foregoing totals. The apparent great decline since the European war began may be largely due to the elimination of much of this duplication.

THE UNITED STATES.

As may be expected, the United States exports only small quantities of domestic wool, for the reason that for some years preceding the European War two-fifths of its wool consumption was of foreign origin, while since 1913 considerably more than one-half of its consumption is of such wool. Although the exports of raw wool are insignificant, the exports of woolen rags, especially when converted to an equivalent of grease wool, are of large account; shoddy, waste, and mungo also are included when reported.

The exports of domestic raw wool and of manufactured wool as far as estimated are ascertainable as a total for only 15 scattered years preceding the fiscal year beginning in 1911, and the totals range from 104,000 to 4,140,000 pounds. In 1911 the total wool export, defined as above, amounted to 61,000,000 pounds and in the following year to 83,000,000 pounds, but a decline followed to 43,000,000 pounds in 1916.

The exports of domestic raw wool, not including any manufactured wool, average only 102,000 pounds from 1849 to 1854; the annual average for the 10 years 1855-1864 was 682,000 pounds, and there was a marked decline to an average of 114,000 pounds during 1875-1884. In the following 10-year period the average increased to 818,000 pounds, followed by 1,751,000 pounds during 1895-1904, from which the average declined in the following 10 years to 1,155,000 pounds, the size of the average being due almost entirely to

an export of 8,158,000 pounds in 1914; no raw wool exports were reported for 1910 and 1911. The largest raw wool export for any one year was for the fiscal year beginning in 1914, above stated, and from that figure the quantity declined to 2,148,000 pounds in 1916.

The exports of domestic raw wool in recent years before the European War were mostly to Canada and the United Kingdom, and of woolen rags mostly to the United Kingdom, but considerably to Belgium and Germany.

Per capita exports.—Preceding 1911 little is known concerning the per capita exports of raw and manufactured wool combined. From 1865 to 1874 the ratio has been computed for seven years with an average of 0.034 of 1 pound. During six of the years from 1875 to 1884 the average was 0.007 of 1 pound. For the four years 1911–1914 the average was 0.800 of 1 pound. The ratio declined from the highest recorded point, 0.874 of 1 pound in 1912, to 0.424 of 1 pound in 1916.

Raw wool exports declined per capita from 0.022 of 1 pound in 1855-1864 to 0.002 of 1 pound in 1875-1884, followed by an increase to 0.013 of 1 pound during 1885-1894, after which during the 10 years 1895-1904 the highest per capita average of domestic exports of raw wool was reached, 0.023 of 1 pound. During 1905-1914 the average amounted to 0.013 of 1 pound, or the same as for 20 years previous.

Percentage of production.—As far as can be ascertained the exports of domestic raw and manufactured wool have averaged much below 1 per cent of the production until during the years beginning with 1911. From that year to 1914 the per capita exports of domestic raw and of manufactured wool as far as estimated, increased from 19.1 to 28.4 per cent of the production, after which a decline was to 16.2 per cent in 1915 and 15 per cent in 1916.

For raw wool alone the percentage of the production exported has been very small in periodical averages, and the highest ratio for one year is 2.8 per cent in 1914. During only six years for a long period of time has the ratio exceeded 1 per cent.

Percentage of the supply.—If the total supply of wool to the United States be compared with the domestic exports, the ratio appears only as a trace until recent years, even though woolen rags be combined with raw wool. In 1911, however, the wool export amounted to 11.6 per cent of the supply, and this ratio grew to 16.3 per cent in the following year, from which there was a decline to 5.5 per cent in 1915, followed by 6.4 per cent in 1916.

Percentage of consumption.—The exported domestic raw wool as a percentage of the consumption of wool in this country has always been very small, but if the equivalent raw wool of the exported woolen rags is included the combined exports are found to have been 13.1 per cent in 1911, followed by the highest point reached, in 1912, 19.5 per cent. The ratio declined to 5.8 per cent in 1915, with some recovery to 6.8 per cent in 1916.

FOREIGN TRADE SURPLUS.

By means of subtractions the quantity of the foreign wool received above the quantity of domestic wool exported is readily ascertained. This surplus of imports amounted to 15,000,000 pounds of wool in the grease in 1840, and the periodical averages increased to 194,000,000 pounds in 1905–1914, with a continuous upward movement except a recession in 1875–1884. Equivalent raw wool in manufactures in foreign trade as far as estimated is included.

The highest surplus of imports above domestic exports was 509,000,000 pounds of wool in the fiscal year beginning in 1915. The quantity was unusually large in the preceding year and amounted to 348,000,000 pounds in the fellowing year, 1916.

For raw wool alone the import surplus has grown from 15,000,000 pounds in 1840 without interruption of the advance in 10-year averages to 208,000,000 pounds in 1905–1914. For 1915 the import surplus was 520,000,000 pounds of raw wool, followed by 362,000,000 pounds in 1916.

IMPORT SURPLUS PER CAPITA.

Although the surplus imports of wool are large in total number of pounds, they seem small when regarded as an average amount per capita of the population. For raw and manufactured wool in foreign trade as far as estimated, the ratio declined from 2.20 pounds per capita in 1855–1864 to

the low average of 1.42 pounds in 1875–1884, after which there was an increase to 3.43 pounds in 1895–1904, followed by decline to 2.60 pounds in 1905–1914. For 1915 the ratio was 5.54 pounds per capita and for 1916 3.84 pounds.

PERCENTAGE OF PRODUCTION.

To look at the surplus imports of wool from another angle, comparison may be made with the national production of wool. Of this production the surplus imports increased from 26.5 per cent in 1875–1884 to 63.3 per cent in 1905–1914. By 1914 the ratio had grown to 98.6 per cent of the production, and in 1915 it reached the extraordinary ratio of 178.1 per cent, followed by 120.7 per cent in 1916. The raw equivalent of manufactured wool is included.

For raw wool alone the surplus imports as a percentage of production continuously increased from 26 per cent in 1875–1884 to 68 per cent in 1905–1914. The ratio for 1914 was 99 per cent; for 1915 it was 182 per cent; and for 1916, 125.5 per cent of the production.

PERCENTAGE OF CONSUMPTION.

Perhaps the most important comparison of all for the surplus imports is with the consumption of wool. The raw equivalent of manufactured wool in foreign trade being included to the extent of the estimates, the surplus imports of wool during six years of the period 1875–1884 averaged 22.6 per cent of the consumption. For 1911–1914 the average was 38.9 per cent of the consumption, followed by 64 per cent in 1915 and 54.7 per cent in 1916. By 1914 the surplus imports had all but equaled domestic wool entering into consumption. The surplus imports of raw wool afford about the same comparisons with the consumption of wool that are mentioned above for the combination of raw wool and the raw equivalent of manufactured wool.

CONSUMPTION.

The stage has now been reached where the main features of statistical information relating to wool may be employed to indicate its consumption. In the case of some commodities it is feasible to determine consumption by ascertaining family experience by direct investigation with ample labor

at command and at large expense, and sometimes consumption may be estimated by averaging the opinions or judgments of a large number of correspondents, but in the case of wool the only feasible procedure is the common formula of production plus gross imports less reexports minus domestic exports. The production year is a calendar year, and to this is related the foreign trade year beginning July 1 of the production year.

The formula above stated may not in the case of a commodity indicate the quantity of its consumption in any one year, because of the difference between stocks in the country at the beginning and end of the year. Indeed, the indicated annual per capita consumption by this process is often highly variable. The error of the process, however, may be almost entirely eliminated by combining years in periods, say of 10 years, and taking the annual average for each period.

The consumption indicated for wool is for all purposes. For raw wool consumption ends with its employment in manufacturing, regardless of what becomes of the products, and for raw wool no account is taken of imports and exports of wool in the form of textiles and other wool products. In this investigation wool consumption has been determined also for manufactures of wool in the foreign trade as far as feasible.

NUMBER OF POUNDS.

During six years of the period 1875–1884 the average annual consumption of raw and manufactured wool in foreign trade as far as estimated, was 281,000,000 pounds, and the annual average for 1911–1914 was 495,000,000 pounds, followed by 795,000,000 pounds in 1915, and 637,000,000 pounds in 1916.

The consumption of raw wool has been a little larger than the combined consumption of raw and manufactured wool in foreign trade for the reason that the exports of manufactured wool have been larger than its imports within the limits of the estimates. During the 10 years 1875–1884 the raw wool consumption averaged 294,000,000 pounds annually; during the next 10 years the average was 420,000,000 pounds; again, in the next 10 years it was 462,000,000 pounds; and in 1905–1914 the average was 515,000,000 pounds, after

which followed the indicated consumption of 806,000,000 pounds in 1915 and 651,000,000 pounds in 1916.

PERCENTAGE OF DOMESTIC AND OF FOREIGN WOOL.

The foregoing figures for consumption include foreign as well as domestic wool. Each of these classes of wool has been converted into a percentage of the total consumption. For raw and manufactured wool in the foreign trade as far as estimated the consumption of domestic wool during six years of the period 1875–1884 averaged 77.2 per cent, and during 1911–1914 it averaged 45.5 per cent. For 1915 the indicated fraction of domestic wool consumption is 30.1 per cent, and for 1916 it is 38.5 per cent.

The complementary percentages express the relative consumption of foreign wool, and this consumption has increased from 22.8 per cent of the total consumption in six years of the period 1875–1884 to 54.5 per cent of the total consumption in 1911–1914. To the extent that the computed consumption for a single year can be trusted, the foreign wool consumption of 1915 was 69.9 per cent of the total and of 1916 it was 61.5 per cent. Apparently the foreign wool consumption became greater than the domestic wool consumption for the first time in 1913, except the one previous year 1896.

PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION.

The fragmentary record of the consumption of raw and of manufactured wool in the foreign trade as far as estimated, indicates that the per capita consumption of this wool averaged 5.85 pounds in six of the 10 years 1875–1884, and 5.14 pounds per capita from 1911 to 1914, followed by 7.93 pounds in 1915 and 6.25 pounds in 1916.

The record for raw wool indicates that the per capita consumption during the 10 years 1875–1884 averaged 5.92 pounds, and that the average rose to 6.74 pounds in the next decade, after which there was a decline to 6.11 pounds in 1895–1904 and to 5.63 pounds in 1905–1914, followed by the extraordinary consumption, as computed for the single year 1915, of 8.04 pounds, and of 6.39 pounds for 1916.

Raw-wool consumption per capita was clearly declining after 1885-1894, and this decline was arrested apparently about 1914, possibly in a small degree in 1913.

PERCENTAGE OF PRODUCTION.

The consumption of wool may now be related to its production, with the knowledge already acquired that the consumption much exceeds the production. For raw and manufactured wool in the foreign trade as far as estimated the consumption of domestic and foreign wool during six of the years 1875-1884 averaged 129.3 per cent of the production; that is to say, the consumption equaled the production and 29.3 per cent more. During 1911-1914 the consumption of this wool was 163.7 per cent of the production, followed by 278.1 per cent of the production in 1915, and 220.8 per cent in 1916.

The long record for raw wool presents an unbroken increase in 10-year averages for the ratio between consumption and production. For the 10 years 1875-1884 the consumption of domestic and foreign raw wool averaged 126 per cent of the production, and the average advanced continuously to 168 per cent in 1905-1914, after which the ratio rose enormously to 282 per cent in 1915, followed by 225.5 per cent in 1916.

Of the domestic wool production all but a fraction of 1 per cent is usually consumed in this country, but if the exports of wool in domestic manufactures as far as estimated are subtracted, the consumption during 1911-1914 was as low as 74.6 per cent of the production, after which may be noticed 83.8 per cent for 1915, and 85 per cent for 1916.

PERCENTAGE OF THE SUPPLY.

With the understanding that the supply of wool equals the production plus the gross imports less the reexports, the relationship of consumption to it may readily be determined. During six of the years in the period 1875–1884 the consumption of raw and manufactured wool in the foreign trade as far as estimated was 99.8 per cent, but the fraction much decreased during the four years 1911–1914, or to 86.5 per cent. In 1915 and 1916, however, the fraction rose to 94.5 and 93.6 per cent, respectively, of the supply

PRICES OF SHEEP AND WOOL.

Sheep produce meat as well as wool and the course of the prices of sheep is determined by various causes and not solely by the price of wool, yet the price of wool is doubtless an element of sheep price. The Bureau of Crop Estimates has a record of the average price per head of sheep at the farm for January 1 as far back as 1867. All ages and qualities of sheep are included in the average. A series of upward and downward tendencies is apparent, usually corresponding with periods of industrial elevation and depression.

From the average of \$2.50 per head in 1867 there was a decline to \$1.64 in 1869, after which there was increase to \$2.71 in 1873. Accompanied by fluctuations, a decline followed to \$2.07 in 1879, with increase to \$2.53 in 1883, decline to \$1.91 in 1886, increase to \$2.66 in 1893, decline to \$1.58 in 1895, increase to \$2.98 in 1901, and after that a general upward movement to \$4.02 in 1914, \$4.50 in 1915, \$5.17 in 1916, \$7.14 in 1917, and \$11.82 in 1918. The average price of sheep at the farm January 1, 1918, was seven and a half times the average of 1895, the lowest of record, and was nearly thrice the average of 1914.

Beginning with 1910 the Bureau of Crop Estimates has estimated the average farm price of unwashed wool on the 15th of each month. For September 15 the averages begin with 17.7 cents per pound of unwashed wool in 1910, and continue with 15.6 cents in 1911, 18.7 cents in 1912, 15.8 cents in 1913, 18.6 cents in 1914, 23.3 cents in 1915, 28.4 cents in 1916, and 54.2 cents in 1917. The 1917 price of unwashed wool at the farm was about three and a half times the price of 1913.

There are elaborate records of the wholesale prices of wool. In the Boston market, which is the principal one in this country, the recorded "low" price of Ohio unwashed fine wool in 1912 was 21 cents per pound. In 1914 the "low" of the year was 20 cents, in 1915 it was 23 cents, in 1916 it was 26 cents, and in 1917 it was 38 cents, but during 1917 the "low" of the market increased rapidly from 38 cents in January to 62 cents in September, and 65 cents in December.

The Boston market record for "high" for Ohio unwashed fine wool was 25 cents in 1912 and 1914, 29 cents in 1915, 38 cents in 1916, and 67 cents in 1917. During the last-named year the "high" price of the market increased from 40 cents in January to 67 cents in December.

To take another class and condition of wool, fine territory staple wool, scoured, is selected. The "low" price of this wool in 1912 was 60 cents, and from that figure the increase was to 73 cents in 1916, and \$1.10 in 1917; while at the other extreme the "high" of 1912 was 67 cents, 75 cents for 1915, \$1.12 for 1916, and \$1.85 for 1917. All records exhibit a marked increase in the price of all kinds of wool in 1916 and more especially in 1917.

STOCKS IN HANDS OF DEALERS AND MANUFACTURERS.

In the summer of 1917 the Bureau of Markets ascertained the quantity of wool held by dealers and manufacturers in the United States, and repeated the inquiry quarterly thereafter. The report for December 31, 1917, states that 244,000,000 pounds of wool were in stocks held by manufacturers and that 209,000,000 pounds were in stocks held by dealers. The classes of wool so held were wool in the grease, scoured wool, pulled wool, tops, and noils, and nearly three-quarters of the wool in stocks was wool in the grease. The total amount of the stocks held by both the manufacturers and dealers was 453,000,000 pounds, and the quantity would have appeared much larger had the scoured wool and the tops and noils been reckoned into wool in the grease. After this reckoning, the total becomes 617,000,000 pounds of grease or raw wool.

Accepting the grease weight of the wool in stocks as the total, this wool may be compared with the annual production, which in 1917 was nearly 285,600,000 pounds. Therefore the wool stocks for the date mentioned were 116 per cent greater than the production of wool in 1917, were 73 per cent greater than the imports less reexports of raw wool in the fiscal year beginning in 1916, and 5 per cent less than the raw wool, domestic and foreign, consumed in 1916. The sum of these stocks and of the prospective clip of this country in 1918 is over 900,000,000 pounds, or much

more than the very high consumption of either 1915 or 1916, and this is so without including any import supply.

SUMMARY OF CONDITIONS.

From the foregoing it will be seen that at the beginning of the European war this country was confronted with a persistent decline in the number of sheep and in the production of wool, a condition, however, in which nearly all sheep-raising and wool-producing countries found themselves. Various explanations of this general decline have been advanced. It has been asserted that sheep raising in old countries with long-established farming can not compete with the industry in countries having ranges and cheap pastures. In some range countries farm holdings are encroaching upon sheep pastures; in two or three important countries droughts are limiting or reducing sheep herds; disease and parasites are contributing to these results.

In this country the demand for wool has increasingly exceeded the domestic production until at the beginning of the European war quite one-half of the wool consumption was of foreign wool. Otherwise stated, this country depended as much upon foreign wool as upon the domestic production. Since 1913 much more foreign than domestic wool has been consumed. At the beginning of the European war, also, this country was confronted with a diminishing per capita consumption of wool, which had continued for 30 years.

In the meantime substitutes have been employed in making fabrics. By far the most useful and economically possible substitute on a large scale has been cotton. Linen fiber has been too costly and too restricted in supply. Silk can hardly be regarded as a substitute in any proper sense. Some of the animal hairs, the supply of which is relatively very small, may perhaps be regarded as doing substitute duty. In place of carpets extensive use is made of mattings composed of straw, cocoa fiber, rattan, grass, and other vegetable substances, and these mattings may be regarded as substitutes to some extent for woolen carpets and rugs. Cotton also is used to a large extent for making fabrics for covering floors. Therefore it appears that cotton is almost exclusively the

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potential substitute for wool, except to the extent mattings are used, and this substitution has occurred not only by mixture or combination with wool in the same fabric, but also by entirely displacing wool. Substitute fibers and matting materials therefore have prevented the wool-consuming world from feeling the pinch of scarcity.

HIDES AND SKINS: PRODUCTION, FOREIGN TRADE, SUPPLY, AND CONSUMPTION.

By GEORGE K. HOLMES,

Statistical Scientist, Division of Crop Records, Bureau of Crop
Estimates.

WORLD-WIDE CONDITIONS.

ROM the time when the dried and tanned skins of animals, without removal of fur, hair, or wool, covered some of the nakedness of the human body, these materials have been in demand for increasing and more diversified uses, until in recent years demand has so pressed on supply that substitutes have been provided for some uses to an appreciable degree, and economies in the employment of leather have been forced upon industries.

Irrespective of the belligerent countries in Europe, the general fact remains that throughout the world cattle are barely increasing absolutely, and apparently are not even holding their own in numbers in relation to population, while the number of sheep is declining both per capita and absolutely.

ANIMALS IN IMPORTANT PRODUCING COUNTRIES.

CATTLE ON FARMS IN THE UNITED STATES.

In the United States the number of cattle on farms was ascertained for the first time in the census of 1840, when nearly 15,000,000 head were counted. The number had increased to 25,600,000 in 1860, to nearly 36,000,000 in 1880, to 51,400,000 in 1890, and to 67,700,000 in 1900, including cattle on ranges in 1880 and later. In 1850 calves were excluded from reports by instructions to enumerators, and for subsequent census years to 1890 no instructions were given concerning them and it is probable that a few calves, but not all, were reported. At the time of the census of 1910, taken April 15 instead of June 1 as before, 61,800,000 cattle including calves were counted on farms and ranges, but the number would have been about 65,500,000 had they been

counted June 1, or about 2,200,000 less than in 1900. As nearly as can be determined, the number of cattle reached its height about 1907, when the number estimated by the Bureau of Crop Estimates was 72,534,000.

According to the estimates of this bureau, the census number of cattle for 1910—61,800,000—declined year by year to 56,500,000 in 1913, and the number remained about the same in 1914, but there was a perceptible increase in 1915, and again in 1916, when the number of cattle on farms and ranges was estimated to be 61,920,000. In 1917 the number had increased to 64,583,000, and in 1918 to 66,830,000, or to 5,000,000 more than were found in the census of 1910. The number of cattle not on farms and ranges in 1910 was nearly 2,000,000.

The two geographic divisions just west of the Mississippi River contained 34,300,000 cattle on farms and ranges in 1900, or a little more than one-half of the total for the whole country. By 1914 the number of cattle in these two divisions had declined to 24,660,000, or to 42 per cent of the total, a loss of about 10,000,000 head, equal to one-third of the cattle of Argentina or of Brazil. The West North Central group of States lost nearly 5,000,000 of its 20,000,000 cattle; the West South Central division lost nearly the same number of its 14,000,000 cattle, or a larger fraction than did the West North Central States. The East North Central division lost over 1,000,000 of its 10,500,000 cattle from 1900 to 1914, and during the same 14 years all of the other divisions of States lost cattle except the South Atlantic and Pacific.

In 1915, however, there was some recovery of cattle in the two divisions of States just west of the Mississippi River, and this was continued in 1916; the gain of 1916 over 1914 is estimated at 1,776,000 cattle in the West North Central States, and 542,000 cattle in the West South Central States. New England appeared to be slightly gaining, and there were more distinct gains in all other divisions of States.

The decline in the number of cattle since about 1907 seems to have been arrested in 1914, and a turn toward a gradual increase was indicated in 1915 to 1918.

When 1917 arrived, cattle were still increasing in number, and their total on farms and ranges was 64,583,000, a gain of 2.663,000 since the preceding year, nearly half of which was

in the two geographic divisions just west of the Mississippi River. There was distinct gain also in the East North Central States and in the Mountain States, while there were gains in every one of the other divisions.

The census of 1910 established a cattle ratio of 0.67 of 1 animal per capita of the population, and the estimates for subsequent years show a continual decline to 0.57 of 1 animal in 1914, but in the movement toward recovery that followed a per capita ratio of 0.58 of 1 animal was reached in 1915, of 0.60 of 1 animal in 1916, of 0.62 of 1 animal in 1917, and of 0.64 of 1 animal in 1918. Thus it appears that cattle have increased since 1914 not only absolutely but per capita of the population, although the absolute increase since 1910 has not also been a per capita increase.

In partial explanation of the decline of cattle on farms and ranges from 1900 to 1914 it should be remembered that in the great corn belt cattle breeding has largely changed to cattle feeding since about 30 years ago. While this change was taking place in the corn belt, range and ranch began to supply feeders more cheaply than they could be raised on the farms, or, at any rate, the farmers bought feeders more easily than they could raise them. But limitations to the production of feeders began to appear, and were found in the enforcement of the no-fence law on the public land, in homesteading, in dry farming, and in the corn belt itself in dairying, in the increasing cost of stockers and feeders, and in neglect to feed roughage. The considerable increase in the number of cattle in the corn belt since 1914 indicates a beginning in changes in farm and animal husbandry, management, and practices; and the considerable increase in the number of cattle in the Mountain States also indicates broader farming practices than were feasible to a new agriculture on farms and better use of the forest grazing lands.

SHEEP AND GOATS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Spring lambs were expressly excluded from enumeration in the census of 1850; they were not mentioned in the censuses of 1840, 1860, 1870, 1880, and 1890, and were presumably largely omitted; but in 1900 and 1910 they were included. Range sheep were included in 1880 and later census years. From 19,000,000 sheep in 1840 the national flock of sheep

on farms grew to 22,500,000 in 1860, to 35,000,000 in 1880, to 36,000,000 in 1890, and to 61,500,000 in 1900. The census date had been June 1 until 1910, when April 15 was adopted, and this automatically reduced the number of census sheep as compared with the June 1 numbers of previous censuses. The sheep counted April 15, 1910, were 52,450,000, the equivalent of which, June 1 following, was about 63,000,000, or about 1,500,000 above the number in 1900.

The annual estimates of the number of sheep made by the Bureau of Crop Estimates subsequent to 1910 have constantly declined to 47,616,000 in 1917, a loss of about 5,000,000 in seven years. The estimate for 1918 is 48,900,000 sheep. It seems probable that 1910 indicates approximately the time when there was the largest number of sheep in this country. About 400,000 sheep were not on farms and ranges in 1910.

The number of goats on farms and ranges in this country was not ascertained until the census of 1900, when 1,871,000 goats were found June 1. In 1910 at the earlier date of April 15 the number was 2,915,000. Since that census the number of goats in existence has not been estimated, but the number of goats inspected for slaughter by the Bureau of Animal Industry has increased since about 1910 by a very large ratio. In the fiscal year beginning in 1910 the inspected goats numbered 54,000; in 1913, 122,000; in 1915, 180,000; and in the fiscal year beginning in 1916 they numbered 175,000. The increase of goats inspected for slaughter may not indicate a corresponding increase in number of goats in existence, but may indicate an increasing disposition to utilize goats for meat.

The production in this country of hides and skins of animals other than cattle, sheep, and goats is so small, especially relative to the number of animals on hand, that an examination of the number of these animals would not be pertinent.

CATTLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES.

The number of cattle in Argentina has been nearly stationary in recent years, although the number decreased from 29,124,000 in May, 1908, to 25,867,000 in June, 1914. Yet that country has vast ranges and the Argentine cattlemen are enterprising and progressive. Disease and drought have

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made some inroads upon the herds, but these causes do not account for the failure of Argentina to increase the number of cattle. The explanation is offered that the rapidly increasing prices of cattle, and the greatly increased facilities for slaughtering and exporting in recent years, have induced cattlemen to oversell, or to slaughter beyond the limit.

Australia is another country with stationary cattle herds. The severity of the droughts is much greater than in Argentina, and although Australia had about 10,000,000 cattle in December, 1915, yet this number is about the same as it was in 1890. Perhaps Australia has been slaughtering to the limit under the inducements of high prices and increased facilities for slaughtering and marketing meat.

The census number of cattle in Brazil in 1913 was over 30,000,000, and the cattle of that country have been for many years a prolific source of hides.

Including Native States with British India, the number of cattle in India, counting calves and young buffaloes, has risen to a total of 137,000,000.

The conditions found in the vast region of British South Africa, including the Union of South Africa, have made the cattle industry uncertain and sometimes disastrous. The census number of cattle was 4,062,000 in 1904, and 7,176,000 in 1911, but the indicated increase was greater than normal because of recovery from the Boer War. Since the European war began cattle raising in Rhodesia has made much progress on a large scale.

Whatever available cattle-range area Canada had was rapidly passing into farm status before the war under the immigration of farmers and the multiplication of farms on new land. Since 1913 the cattle industry of Canada has suffered a decline, so that the number of cattle has declined from 6,656,000 in that year to 5,968,000 in 1917. A prominent cause of decline of number has been the high prices of cattle and beef and the demands of the European war.

Madagascar has a growing importance in the supply of cattle hides. The cattle are of the Cebu breed and numbered 2,000,000 in 1898 and 5,500,000 in 1912, and continuation of increase is expected.

Little is known about the present number of cattle in Mexico. The last census was taken in 1902, which reported 5,142,000 cattle.

The vast regron of Asiatic Russia is practically a new country in cattle raising; from 1905 to 1911 the number of cattle increased from 5,600,000 to 14,700,000, and by 1913 the number had reached 18,400,000. In European Russia, however, the number of cattle hardly increased from 1900 to 1913, but remained quite constant at a little under 32,000,000. In 1913 Asiatic and European Russia had about 50,000,000 cattle.

A promising cattle country is Uruguay, which had 8,200,000 cattle in 1908, according to the census of that year. The understanding is that the number of cattle in that country has increased steadily since the census.

Endeavors have been made in the warring countries of Europe and in neighboring neutral countries to preserve their stock of cattle without great deterioration in numbers, but nevertheless it is supposed that there has been diminution because of war conditions.

SHEEP AND GOATS IN OTHER COUNTRIES.

The great sheep-raising countries of the world, in addition to the United States, are Argentina, Australia, British India, British South Africa, New Zealand, Turkey, Asiatic and European Russia, the United Kingdom, and Uruguay, and considerable numbers are found in Algeria, Brazil, France, and Spain.

In Argentina the number of sheep has declined since 1908 from 67,000,000 to 43,000,000, although, as far as pasturage is concerned, great increase in the number would seem to be possible.

Australia is subject to prolonged and destructive droughts that sometimes reduce the number of sheep in one season by many millions, and yet rapid recovery has often followed. The largest number of sheep ever possessed in Australia, as far as is known, was 106,000,000 in 1891. After enormous fluctuations, 95,000,000 sheep were reported for 1911, followed by a strong decline, so that in 1915 the number was reduced to 70,000,000 sheep.

British South Africa has extensive areas suitable for sheep raising, and these have made possible the great increase from 16,000,000 sheep in 1904 to 36,000,000 in 1913.

Sheep have steadily increased in number in New Zealand, where the industry seems to be strongly established. From 1891 to 1917 the sheep increased from 18,000,000 to 25,000,000.

In Asiatic and European Russia combined the number of sheep declined from about 89,000,000 in 1903–1908 to 80,000,000, or 10 per cent, by the time that the European war began.

The census of 1908 in Uruguay reported 26,300,000 sheep, or an increase of 7,700,000 in eight years, and it is supposed that the increase has continued.

While it is known that the number of sheep has declined since 1914 in most of the belligerent countries of Europe, and it is supposed that their numbers may have been somewhat reduced in some of the European neutral countries, yet the general fact has been that efforts have been made to conserve the flocks of sheep and to limit the reduction as much as possible.

Algeria has a stock of goats which for many years has ranged from about 3,500,000 to 4,000,000. In Argentina the number of goats has increased from nearly 2,000,000 in 1888 to nearly 4,000,000 in 1908, and 4,325,000 in 1914. A census of goats in Brazil, taken in 1913, shows a total of 10,049,000.

For no other country is so large a number of goats reported as for British India; for that large country with its enormous population the number of goats in 1914 reached the total of 30,673,000. In Mexico the number of goats in 1902 according to the census was 4,206,000, and about the same number, or 4,791,000, is reported for Asiatic Russia for 1913. Spain had 3,265,000 goats in 1904, practically the same as for 1910, but a distinct increase over the 2,534,000 reported in 1891.

Asiatic and European Turkey has more goats than any other country except British India. In 1912 the number was reported to be 20,269,000, or somewhat less than in 1910, but an increase of about one-third over the number of 1905.

It appears that in the more important countries the number of goats has generally been about stationary in recent years, although large increases are found when comparison

is made with the goats of 15 or 20 years ago. In less important countries, which after all possess a large number of goats in the aggregate, it is observable that the number has been about stationary for a considerable period of time.

BUFFALOES AND HORSES.

The supply of buffalo hides comes almost entirely from India. Including the Native States, the number of buffaloes in India, not including young buffaloes, was 20,000,000 in 1914. Other countries that raise buffaloes are the Philippine Islands, with 1,222,000 in 1915, and Bulgaria, with 415,000 in 1910.

The countries that are specially noticeable in the supply of horse hides to the United States are Argentina, Canada, Russia, and this country, and for these countries the number of horses on hand may be briefly noticed. In Argentina the number of horses in 1914 was 8,323,000; in Canada the horses of 1917 numbered 3,000,000; for Asiatic Russia, 12,000,000 horses are reported for 1913, and for European Russia 23,000,000 horses, or 35,000,000 horses for the total. The horses of the United States it is estimated numbered 21,563,000 in 1918.

PRODUCTION OF HIDES AND SKINS.

In a general view of the situation with regard to the production of hides and skins throughout the world, it is evident that the production, for some indefinite period in the past, has been inadequate to meet the multiplying uses of an increasing population—a population that can elaborate its wants for leather and leather products, and can increase the total of all wants in greater degree than the number of animals that supply hide and skin increase. A new industry may arise, almost in a night, that will add enormously to the demand, as did the automobile industry.

IN THE UNITED STATES.

Estimates of hide and skin production in the United States, some of them rough, may be made for calves, cattle, goats, horses, and sheep. The production may be determined by different processes of estimation with approximate agree-

ment, but it is not to be expected that different estimators will arrive at precisely the same number for any class of hides or skins. For the uses of this article the production of calf and sheep skins and of cattle hides for 1900 is derived from the meat production estimated by the Bureau of Crop Estimates; the goatskins and horse hides are roughly estimated. For 1909 the production of calf, sheep, and goat skins, and of cattle hides is the census slaughter for meat plus the "fallen" skins and hides estimated or approved by the Bureau of Animal Industry. "Fallen" applies to skins and hides of animals that died or were accidentally killed without being utilized for meat. The horse hides are roughly estimated. For the production of hides and skins of meat animals of years subsequent to 1909, the ratio between the inspections by the Bureau of Animal Industry to the total animal slaughter in 1909 has been applied to the inspections, year by year. It is evident that the figures for 1909 are more trustworthy than those of any other year, for the reason that they alone were mostly determined by the census process of enumeration, the only element of estimate being the comparatively small number of "fallen" meat animals.

The slaughter of meat animals during the present war may have been so affected by unusual conditions as to cause considerable error in the application of the process of estimation to these years, and yet it is not certain that this suspicion is altogether justified. The estimates of production made for the purposes of this article end with the first full calendar year of the war, 1915.

The estimated production of calfskins in 1900 was 5,899,-000, in 1909 it was 6,575,000, and the number rose to 6,790,000 in 1912, from which it fell to 5,060,000 in 1914. In the rebound the number rose to 5,424,000 in 1915.

Cattle hides were produced to the number of 13,121,000 in 1900, 13,765,000 in 1909, followed by decline to 11,944,000 in 1914, after which ensued increase to 12,645,000 hides in 1915.

The production of goatskins has increased at a strong rate. The estimate for 1900 is 191,000 skins. The production for 1909 was 297,000 skins, and after a rapid decline to 110,000 skins in 1911, there was a remarkable increase to 432,000 skins in 1915.

Subject to considerable variations, sheepskins increased in production from 14,359,000 in 1900 to 19,460,000 in 1912, followed by rapid decline to 15,865,000 skins in 1915. These estimates accord with the known period of overslaughter of sheep, followed by diminution of stock from which to derive normal slaughter.

There is no production in this country of buffalo hides and dog and kangaroo skins, but there is some production of pigskins, the number being unknown. The contribution of skins of various members of the deer and antelope families, once large, has become much smaller, and there is a small production of alligator skins.

Various ratios for production, foreign trade, supply, and consumption have been computed for 1900, 1909, 1914, and 1915.

There has been a marked decline in the per capita number of pounds of all skins produced since 1900, except goatskins, although some recovery followed 1914.

The weight of hides and skins produced may be related to the weight of those that are consumed, and in applying this process it appears that the production of calfskins in 1900 was 67 per cent of the consumption (excluding domestic exports of calf upper leather), and but 36 per cent in 1915; of cattle hides 94 per cent in 1900 (excluding domestic exports of sole leather), and but 56 per cent in 1915; and of sheepskins 75 per cent in 1900 and but 48 per cent in 1915.

By 1915 production as a fraction of consumption was a little over one-third for calfskins, somewhat over one-half for cattle hides, a mere trace for goatskins, and a little less than one-half for sheepskins.

IMPORTS OF HIDES AND SKINS.

WORLD MOVEMENT.

Nearly all of the imports of hides and skins are into a comparatively few countries, and these countries are prepared to tan them and more or less to manufacture the leather into numerous products. The total import trade of substantially the world in 1901 amounted to 1,232,000,000 pounds of hides and skins in all sorts of commercial condition, no attempt being made to reduce the weights to a uni-

form green-salted basis. Doubtless there is much duplication in this total, because it often happens that some of the imports of one country are exported and become the imports of another. The world total increased from the quantity mentioned steadily almost year by year to the maximum amount ever reached, 2,115,000,000 pounds in 1912. In the next year there was a very slight decline, and in 1914 a very large one to 1,149,000,000 pounds. Perhaps some of this loss was one of duplication on account of the reduction of imports by many countries affected by the war.

As an importer of calfskins and cattle and horse hides, Germany had long been the leading nation at the outbreak of the present war, the United States usually being in second place; but as an importer of goat and sheep skins the United States has for years been in the lead, and by a long distance. Other prominent countries in the import trade in hides and skins have been Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Russia, and the United Kingdom.

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

The fiscal years of the foreign trade of the United States are mentioned in this article by the years in which they begin. The gross imports are adopted to 1897, after which the imports for consumption are taken.

The imported buffalo hides are mostly dry and have nearly all come from British India, but in 1915, on account of war disturbances, the record indicates that nearly one-half of these hides came from China and the Dutch East Indies.

More than one-third of the calfskins received in dry condition in 1910 came from Russia in Europe and the fraction increased to more than one-half in 1913, but by 1915 the trade was extinguished. From one-sixth to nearly one-third of the imports of these skins came from Germany until the trade ceased in 1915. In 1915 the countries had much changed the former order of importance, and in this year British India leads as contributing more than one-third of the imports, and Argentina follows with nearly one-quarter.

In 1913 about 21 per cent of the imported green or pickled calfskins were received from the Netherlands, 19 per cent from Germany, 10 per cent each from Canada, France, and

Russia in Europe; but when 1915 arrived the Netherlands contributed 22 per cent of the imports, France 20 per cent, Denmark 13 per cent, and Canada 12 per cent.

Prior to the war from one-third to one-half of the imported dry cattle hides were received from Argentina; China, Colombia, and Venezuela have also been prominent as sources of these imports. In the rearrangement of order in 1915, Brazil had the leading place as the source of the imported dry cattle hides of this country, and contributed over 18 per cent; Argentina's declining fraction fell to less than 18 per cent; and British India's formerly low fraction had risen to 11½ per cent.

When received in green or pickled condition cattle hides have come with increasing fraction from Argentina. In 1913 this fraction was 27 per cent, next below which was 22 per cent for Canada, followed by 11 per cent for Mexico. In the order of 1915 Argentina's fraction had become 44 per cent, Uruguay gained to 12 per cent, Brazil to 11 per cent, and Mexico was still noticeable with 9 per cent.

Dry goatskins come from many countries; their principal source has been British India, with China in second place, and Russia in Europe third, until the last-named country dropped from the list in 1915.

Nearly all of the goatskins received in green or pickled condition have come from British India.

Prior to the beginning of the war, Russia was almost the sole source of supply of dry horse and colt hides. Green or pickled horse and colt hides had five principal sources, according to the record, and the order of these sources in 1913 was Canada, the Netherlands, Germany, France, and the United Kingdom. Under the new conditions of 1915 the United Kingdom supplied more than four-fifths of the green or pickled hides and Canada about one-tenth, or much less relatively than before.

Dry sheepskins have been contributed to the import trade of the United States by many countries. In 1913 Russia in Europe contributed 30 per cent, the United Kingdom 14 per cent, British India 13 per cent, and British South Africa, Australia and New Zealand, and France 6 per cent each. In 1915 British South Africa and Argentina sprung into rela-

tive prominence, and both countries contributed more than 35 per cent of the imports.

More than one-half of the green or pickled sheepskins imported in 1913 were consigned from the United Kingdom. and one-fifth from Australia and New Zealand, and both fractions increased in 1915.

In expressing the total weight of imports, dry weight has been converted to green or pickled weight where possible. From 1897 to 1911 the weight of the imported buffalo hides ranged from 6,000,000 to 20,000,000 pounds, but in 1912 the quantity suddenly increased to 57,000,000 pounds, followed by decline to 44,000,000 pounds in 1914, and by 47,000,000 pounds in 1915.

The import trade in calf and kip skins has had an enormous increase since 1898, when they weighed 25,000,000 pounds. In 1908 the imports increased nearly one-half over those of each of the preceding four years and reached 74,000,000 By 1911 the quantity had reached 193,000,000 pounds, followed by decline to 76,000,000 pounds in 1914, and to 113,000,000 pounds in 1915.

This country has long had an enormous import trade in In 1897 these imports weighed 105,000,000 cattle hides. pounds, by 1908 the weight had increased to 159,000,000 pounds, and in the following year it was 330,000,000 pounds. Accompanied by some fluctuations in following years the quantity increased until 667,000,000 pounds of cattle hides were imported in 1915.

Compared with other countries, the United States is far in the lead as an importer of goatskins. In 1894 the imports of these skins weighed 54,000,000 pounds; 111,000,000 pounds were reached in 1905, and the quantity rose to 177,-000,000 pounds in 1912, after which there was a drop to 121,000,000 pounds in 1914, followed by an enormous increase to 190,000,000 pounds in 1915.

There was only a small import trade in horse, colt, and ass hides in 1897—hardly more than 1,000,000 pounds, but the imports increased until the highest figure, 46,000,000 pounds, was recorded for 1912, after which there was a drop to 23,-000,000 pounds in 1914, followed by 35,000,000 pounds for 1915.

Subject to fluctuations, the import trade of this country in sheepskins has increased from 28,000,000 pounds in 1901 to 104,000,000 pounds in 1915.

Dogskins have figured in the import statistics of this country in a small way; 6,700 dry skins weighing 2,000 pounds were imported in 1913, 18,000 skins weighing 3,900 pounds in 1914, and 6,000 skins weighing 1,200 pounds in 1915.

Kangaroo-skin imports had not been maintained at former figures before the revival of 1913 and 1915. During the eight years from 1897 to 1904 the import of these skins had the dry weight of 1,200,000 pounds annually, and the weight dropped to 600,000 pounds in 1907; but there was a subsequent increase and the former magnitude of imports was restored in 1913 and 1915.

Pigskins have grown into imports of some importance, and their weight of 500,000 pounds in 1910 became 941,000 pounds in 1915.

Various dry hides and skins classified as "other" contribute a considerable quantity to the national imports. These include the skins of the deer and antelope varieties for glove making. The imports for 1910 were 7,000,000 pounds, followed by decline to 4,400,000 pounds in 1912, after which there was increase to 8,900,000 pounds in 1915.

The supply of hides and skins is to be regarded as the sum of the production and the imports. Of the total supply of calfskins in 1900, 36 per cent of the weight was imported; in 1909, 53 per cent; in 1914, 59 per cent; and in 1915, 67 per cent.

For the supply of cattle hides a still greater increase of reliance on foreign sources is indicated. The imports of 1900 were only 11 per cent of the supply, but in 1909 they had risen to 29 per cent, in 1914 to 42 per cent, and in 1915 to 49 per cent.

The imported goatskins constitute nearly the entire supply, leaving only 1.5 per cent to domestic production in 1915.

Foreign sheepskins also have had a growing part in the national supply. Their percentage in 1900 was 25, and this increased to 43 in 1909; after a recession to 35 per cent in 1914, the fraction rose to more than one-half of the supply, or 52 per cent, in 1915.

NATIONAL SUPPLY OF HIDES AND SKINS.

The sum of the production and imports of calfskins has been an increasing one since 1900. In that year the supply of these skins weighed 96,000,000 pounds; in 1909, 146,000,-000 pounds; in 1909, 146,000,000 pounds; in 1914, 129,000,000 pounds; and in 1915, 170,000,000 pounds.

The same tendency is exhibited in the supply of cattle hides. This amounted to 928,000,000 pounds in 1900, 1,156,-000,000 pounds in 1909, 1,133,000,000 pounds in 1914, and to the unprecedented total of 1,363,000,000 pounds in 1915.

Goatskins also have participated in the general advance. Their supply in 1900 weighed 78,000,000 pounds; in 1909, 118,000,000 pounds; in 1914, 124,000,000 pounds; and in 1915, 193,000,000 pounds.

For many years the weight of the sheepskins constituting the national supply has been second only to that of cattle hides, which, however, far exceeds the weight of sheepskins. For 1900 the latter weighed 115,000,000 pounds; for 1909, 156,000,000 pounds; for 1914, 171,000,00 pounds; and for 1915, 198,000,000 pounds.

For the purposes of a grand comparison, the weights of all kinds of hides and skins constituting the national supply have been added, with the result that the grand total of 1,283,000,000 pounds in 1900 has grown to over 2,023,000,000 pounds in 1915, an increase of nearly three-fifths in 15 years.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS.

INTERNATIONAL MOVEMENT.

The world's exports of hides and skins do not balance the imports year by year, and need not do so exactly nor even closely for reasons that can not be explained here. Exports. of hides and skins increased greatly from the calendar year 1901 to 1912, or from a total of 1,221,000,000 pounds to 2,117,000,000 pounds. A slight decline followed in 1913 and a very large one in 1914, when the total exports were 1,268,-000,000 pounds, showing the effects of war conditions. The great exporting countries are naturally the countries possessing large stocks of animals that produce hides and skins, but there are some countries that do not possess these stocks.

which have a large international trade in forwarding these commodities from producing to consuming countries. Primarily the principal exporting countries are Argentina, Australia, Brazil, British India, Uruguay, and secondarily before the war, Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom.

FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Exports of domestic hides and skins are in green-salted condition. Nearly all of the calfskins exported from this country go to Canada, and also the bulk of the cattle hides, but before the war a considerable fraction of the exported cattle hides was sent to France, Germany, Japan, and the Netherlands; in 1915 over 90 per cent of the exports of these hides were shipped to Canada and Japan. Germany before the war was the principal receiver of exported horse hides.

During the 10 fiscal years 1895 to 1904 the exports of all hides and skins averaged 18,000,000 pounds annually, and during 1905-1914 the average was 21,000,000 pounds.

The exported calfskins increased from 500,000 to 1,600,000 pounds from 1911 to 1915. The exported cattle hides ranged from 13,000,000 to 18,000,000 pounds from 1911 to 1915, and the exported horse hides declined from 6,000,000 pounds in 1913 to 300,000 pounds in 1915.

The domestic exports of hides and skins thus far mentioned are of raw skins, but this country loses from its supply a large total of leather which, as far as is practicable, should be deducted from the supply to arrive at a more nearly correct figure for consumption. To a considerable extent exported leather may be converted to terms of green-salted hides and skins, which is the condition in which the raw hides and skins are exported. The only export classes of leather that can be so treated are sole leather, which can be added to cattle hides in 1883 and subsequent years; calf upper leather, which has been added to calfskins; and glazed-kid upper leather, which has been added to goatskins, the latter two beginning in 1910. The imports of leather and tanned skins can not practically be thus converted, but the quantity relatively is not very large, and is more than offset by the domestic exports that are not amenable to conversion.

The equivalent green-salted weight of the exported sole leather increased from an annual average of 36,000,000 pounds in 1883 and 1884 to 57,000,000 pounds in 1905-1914, and to 111,000,000 pounds in 1915.

From 1910 to 1912 the exported calf-upper leather converted to green-salted weight increased from 4,100,000 to 4,700,000 pounds, fell to 3,500,000 pounds in 1914, and rose to over 9,900,000 pounds in 1915; and the glazed-kid upper leather converted to raw-skin weight had a range of exports from 10,000,000 to 14,000,000 pounds from 1910 to 1915. No raw goatskins are mentioned in the record of exports.

Upon adding to the exported hides and skins the leather before mentioned after conversion to terms of hides and skins, the total exports of domestic hides and skins on a green-salted basis averaged 36,000,000 pounds in 1883 and 1884, followed by increase to an average of 72,000,000 pounds in 1895–1904, and an average of 120,000,000 pounds in 1905–1914. From 1908 to 1915 the domestic exports of all hides and skins increased from 60,000,000 to 220,000,000 pounds. Necessarily excluded from this total are domestic exports of leather belting, carriage and automobile leather, glove leather, patent leather, "all other" upper leather, "all other" leather, boots, shoes, and slippers, harness and saddles, and "all other" manufactures of leather.

Calfskins and calf upper leather converted to green-salted weight increased in domestic exports from 4,000,000 to 12,000,000 pounds from 1910 to 1915. Cattle hides and sole leather converted as already mentioned had annual average domestic exports of 36,000,000 pounds in 1883 and 1884, and the annual average increased to 64,000,000 pounds in 1905-1914. These domestic exports increased from 45,000,000 in 1907 to 82,000,000 pounds in 1911, after which they declined to 54,000,000 pounds in 1913, followed by a large increase to 125,000,000 pounds in 1915.

The per capita exports of hides and skins including converted leather as far as feasible decreased from 0.81 to 0.73 of 1 pound from 1900 to 1909, but the per capita ratio greatly increased to 1.33 pounds in 1914, and 1.38 pounds in 1915.

Tendency to increase in their domestic exports is exhibited by hides and skins in relation to their production in this country. The fraction has increased from 6.3 per cent in 1900 to 6.7 per cent in 1909, to 15.8 per cent in 1914, and to 16.2 per cent in 1915.

The exports of domestic hides and skins may be related also to their supply. For the total of all hides and skins the exports as a fraction of the supply were 4.8 per cent in 1900, 4.1 per cent in 1909, 8 per cent in 1914, and 6.8 per cent in 1915.

The exports of domestic hides and skins may now be related to their consumption. In the total for all hides and skins it appears that the ratio for 1900 is 5 per cent; for 1909, 4.2 per cent; for 1914, 8.7 per cent; and for 1915, 7.4 per cent. Consumption would be increased by these percentages if there were no domestic exports.

CONSUMPTION OF HIDES AND SKINS.

As nearly as can be determined by statistical facts and estimates, the consumption of all kinds of hides and skins in this country increased from 1,221,000,000 pounds in 1900 to 1,557,000,000 pounds in 1909, followed by nearly the same consumption in 1914, or 1,509,000,000 pounds. Under the extraordinary demands caused by the war the consumption of 1915 increased enormously to 1,885,000,000 pounds. These figures refer almost entirely to green-salted or pickled skins.

By far the principal item in these grand totals of consumption is cattle hides. The consumption of these in 1900 is placed at 877,000,000 pounds, in 1909 at 1,101,000,000 pounds, in 1914 at 1,009,000,000 pounds, and in 1915 at 1,238,000,000 pounds.

In order of weight sheepskins stand next to cattle hides in consumption, the quantity for 1900 being 115,000,000 pounds, followed by increase to 171,000,000 pounds in 1914, and 199,000,000 pounds in 1915.

Closely following sheepskins is the item of calfskins, the consumption of which in 1900 totaled 92,000,000 pounds, with an increase to 142,000,000 pounds in 1909, followed by decline to 124,000,000 pounds in 1914, while the greatest consumption of calfskins for any year occurred in 1915, with a weight of 158,000,000 pounds.

Goatskins for many years have had a large and important demand in this country, and in order of pounds of consumption they follow calfskins, except that in 1915 they exceed calfskins and follow next after sheepskins. The goatskins consumed in 1900 weighed 78,000,000 pounds, 124,000,000 pounds in 1914, and 193,000,000 pounds in 1915.

Buffalo hides have supplemented cattle hides in consumption to such an extent that they stand fifth in order. Notwithstanding a large falling off in consumption of buffalo hides in 1909, the general fact is that their consumption increased from 19.000,000 pounds in 1900 to 47,000,000 pounds in 1915.

The consumption of horse hides is but vaguely known for the reason that the production in this country has been estimated only by guesswork; but as the figures stand the consumption of horse hides has increased from 3,000,000 pounds in 1900 to 29,000,000 pounds in 1914, and 41,000,000 pounds in 1915.

The comparatively small consumption of kangaroo skins for each of the four years under examination has ranged from about 750,000 to 1,250,000 pounds; the range for pigskins is from about 500,000 to nearly 1,000,000 pounds, and for dogskins from 6,000 to 18,000 pounds. There remains a class of skins under the indefinite class of "other," which consists of imports and is composed mostly of deer and antelope varieties, used chiefly for gloves. The weight of these skins consumed in 1900 was 36,000,000 pounds, and there was great decline by 1914 to 6,700,000 pounds, with small recovery in 1915 to 6,900,000 pounds.

PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION.

After adding to the exports of domestic hides and skins three classes of leather, as explained previously, and after placing substantially all hides and skins and the three classes of leather exports on a green-salted basis, the per capita consumption of hides and skins, including both foreign and domestic, has varied considerably from 1900 to 1915; the average for 1900 is 16.1 pounds; for 1909, 17.2 pounds; for 1914, 15.3 pounds; and for 1915, 18.8 pounds. Apparently war demands raised the average for 1915.

The averages of per capita consumption do not take account of exports of leather other than sole leather, calf upper, and glazed-kid upper, nor of any leather products, and consequently to this extent the averages are too high as expressing ultimate consumption, although they do closely express a tanners' consumption.

DOMESTIC HIDES AND SKINS AS A PERCENTAGE OF CONSUMPTION.

Notwithstanding the fact that the consumption of hides and skins is much greater than the production, some domestic exports find their way out of the country, so that the consumption of domestic hides and skins is less than the production. Of the domestic hides and skins that remain the consumption was 75.3 per cent of the total consumption in 1900, including foreign hides and skins. This fraction declined to 59.4 per cent in 1909, to 46.3 per cent in 1914, and to 38.1 per cent in 1915. In 15 years the domestic consumption has diminished in relative importance from three-quarters of the total consumption to about three-eighths, or about 50 per cent less.

PERCENTAGE OF PRODUCTION.

In 1900 the consumption of all hides and skins was 24 per cent greater than the domestic production, and the deficiency increased until in 1915 the consumption was 120 per cent greater than the production.

The consumption of calfskins was 49 per cent greater than their production in 1900, and the deficiency increased to 1915, for which year the consumption of these skins was 179 per cent greater than the production.

Cattle hides show the same trend; in 1900 the consumption was only 6 per cent greater than the production, and the deficiency increased until 1915, when the consumption was 78 per cent greater than the production.

Again, in the case of sheepskins, the consumption for 1900 was 33 per cent greater than the production; for 1914, 54 per cent greater; and for 1915, 109 per cent greater.

Thus for many years the production of hides and skins in this country has played a losing part in its efforts to meet the demands of consumption, and during all these years this country has been growing more dependent on foreign countries for its hides and skins, and consequently for its leather. By means of increasing foreign help the people of this

country have been enabled to maintain an increasing per capita consumption of hides and skins; that is, a tanners' consumption, certainly from 1900 to 1915; this is for the total of all hides and skins, as well as for the chief varieties, but the progression of the average was reversed in 1914 for the total because it was reversed for calfskins and cattle hides.

COURSE OF PRICES.

Independent of any other influences upon the prices of hides and skins, the increasing demands, their increasing varieties and quantities, must find expression in prices. The Shoe and Leather Reporter has published the wholesale prices of 10 classes of "packer" hides as far back as 1892. and these prices have been reduced to means for these 10 classes combined, and for the 12 months of each year, so that a broad basis for the mean prices is afforded. The lowest mean price recorded for this period is 5.16 cents per pound for 1894, a period of severe industrial depression. By 1838 the mean had risen to 10.04 cents per pound, and by 1911 to 13.21 cents. In the next year, 1912, the mean price of the 10 classes of packer hides was 15.70 cents per pound, followed by 16.92 cents in 1913, 18.26 cents in 1914, 21.17 cents in 1915, 23.54 cents in 1916, and 28.90 cents in 1917. From 1908 to 1917 the mean price increased 149 per cent. prices are for the Chicago market.

A similar compilation of price means has been made for 10 classes of "country" hides. The mean was as low as 4.92 cents per pound for these hides in 1894, and had risen to 12.06 cents in 1911, after which followed 14.99 cents in 1913, 16.90 cents in 1914, 18.71 cents in 1915, 21.97 cents in 1916, and 25.39 cents in 1917, the last-named mean being 163 per cent greater than the mean for 1908.

Great gains in wholesale prices were made also by sheep and goat skins and horse hides. In the Chicago wholesale market, "packers" sheep pelts rose from a mean of \$1 per pelt in 1908 to \$2.19 per pelt in 1916, and to \$3.94 in 1917, a gain for the last-named year of 294 per cent over the mean of 1908.

The trend of the prices of goatskins also was strongly upward. In the New York wholesale market "Monterey,

saltillo" goatskins had a mean price of 31 cents per pound in 1908, and the mean increased to 38 cents per pound in 1915, to 54 cents in 1916, and to \$1.07½ in 1917, a gain in 1917 of 247 per cent over the mean of 1908.

Again, in the case of horse hides a remarkable increase in mean price has been recorded. In the Kansas City market the mean price per horse hide, "cities and countries," for 1s and 2s, was \$2.66 in 1908. The mean price had grown to \$4.75 per hide in 1915, to \$6.35 in 1916, and \$8.38 in 1917. The gain of the last year over the first in this period of nine years was 215 per cent.

The rising prices of hides and skins have induced, if not compelled, the adoption of materials other than leather for the same sorts of products. For many years the wants of man for leather and its products have tended to outstrip the supply, and hence there has been recourse to substitutes within practical and economic limits, and sometimes for greater utility. Rubber, fiber, and wood are used for the heels of shoes, patented materials for soles, and cloth is substituted for the uppers and tops of shoes. For the upholstering of furniture and automobiles, in which the consumption of leather has been large, substitutes that are not leather at all have been invented and are in extensive use. Cotton is woven into belts for transmitting power; sheet iron, tin, and wood have displaced leather in trunk making; chair seats are now rarely made of leather; and straw, rattan, wood, and cloth are often used for making traveling bags and suit cases. Harnesses consume a large amount of leather, but in place of leather are found chains for traces, rope driving lines, cloth and fiber collars, and cotton saddle girths. Numerous other uses of leather have been encroached upon by other and cheaper materials within the scope of every one's daily observation.

SUGAR SUPPLY OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY FRANK ANDREWS.

Chief, Division of Crop Records, Bureau of Crop Estimates.

QUGAR CONSUMPTION in the United States for the five years ending with 1915 amounted annually to 8,000,-000,000 pounds, in round numbers. This includes sugar used not only in the household as sugar, but also in the manufacture of confectionery, preserved fruits, condensed milk, cakes, and similar products. This total consumption divided by the number of people in the United States gives a yearly average of about 84 pounds for each person, or 378 pounds for an average family (4.5 persons). Computing in like manner, the number of pounds of flour consumed per family in one year would amount to about 1,039 pounds, while potatoes would amount to about 1,000 pounds. On this basis of comparison, taking the country as a whole, the average family consumes more than one-third as much sugar as potatoes or as flour. In other words, for every pound of sugar consumed in one form or other, 2.7 pounds of flour and nearly as many pounds of potatoes are consumed.

When cost is considered, sugar occupies a still more important position. Taking the average retail price of sugar for the five years 1911-1915, 6 cents a pound, of flour 31 cents, and of potatoes 2 cents, the retail cost of a year's supply for a family of average size would be about \$23 for sugar, \$36 for flour, and \$20 for potatoes. In estimating the retail value of potatoes, however, for the country as a whole, the retail city price would be too high, because approximately one-half of the population is at or very near the source of production. An average between farm value and city retail value of potatoes gives an average of about 11 cents per pound. This average applied to the family consumption would give about \$15 per family as the household value of potatoes consumed. With this modified reckoning, therefore, flour would be valued at \$36, sugar \$23, and potatoes \$15 in a year's consumption in an average household. In like manner, a year's consumption of butter is estimated (for 1909) as about \$23, and eggs at \$18. The meat used by an average family may be estimated as slightly over 800 pounds a year (1914), and the retail cost at possibly \$200. Milk is consumed in somewhat larger quantities than is sugar, but the yearly cost is probably less.

The figures just quoted emphasize the well-known fact that sugar is a principal item of food both as to quantity and cost. It is so thoroughly recognized that frequent comments are made comparing the present status of sugar as a staple food with its status of a few generations ago as a material for flavoring. A century ago the people of this country consumed less than one-tenth as much sugar as they do now. In 1821-1825 the average per capita consumption was 8.3 pounds, and was practically the same 20 years earlier. In 1791-1795 the estimated consumption was only 7.5 pounds per capita.

INCREASE IN CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR.

A great change occurred in the consumption of sugar between 1825 and 1850. In the five-year period 1851-1855 per capita consumption of sugar had reached 30 pounds, or nearly four times the figure of 1821-1825. The home production in the later period was more than ten times that of the former, and imports were more than seven times as large. These figures do not include maple sugar, which furnished a large fraction of the supply no doubt in the Northern States. The first census of agriculture, that for 1839, reports 31,000,000 pounds of sugar made on farms in the Northern States; this may be assumed to be maple sugar. The total population of the United States in 1840 was 17,000,000, hence the maple-sugar consumption at that time was about 1.8 pounds per capita. During 1851-1855 the home production of sugar nearly equaled the net imports. Great changes were taking place in the economic conditions in this country in that period. Steam was rapidly coming into use as an important factor. The old horsepower mills in Louisiana were being replaced rapidly by steam-driven mills and by other improvements in machinery. In 1845 there were reported 630 sugar mills operated by steam power and 610 by horsepower. In 1850 there were 907 steam mills and 588 with horsepower, and in 1855 the steam mills numbered 938

and the horsepower mills only 361. This period also marked a high point in the river traffic of the Mississippi Valley. Steamboat trade, of which sugar was an important article carried, had not yet been affected seriously by railroad competition. Railroads themselves were just beginning to be connected so as to form through lines of traffic. Heretofore they had been chiefly local, whereas the great river system was the principal route for freight in the Middle West. In 1851-1855 ocean steam navigation had reached a high point of efficiency compared with earlier years. This development meant larger cargoes, quicker service, and, above all, lower freights. The small vessels of a century ago had to charge relatively high rates compared with the large carriers of later times. Since much of our sugar is carried by water from foreign countries, this lowering of the ocean freights helps to make possible our large supply of sugar and its relatively low cost. These are but examples of a general and rather radical change in economic life in this country, and one of the incidents of this change was that of adding another important food to the diet list of the Nation. Just as cotton became common in household use through the invention of the cotton gin, so sugar was transferred from the list of flavoring materials to that of staple foods by means of improvements in mechanical, commercial, and transport facilities.

Thirty years later than the period just discussed—that is, in 1881–1885—the per capita consumption of sugar had risen to 46 pounds, and the imports had increased from an average of about 420,000,000 pounds in 1851–1855 to nearly 2,500,000,000 pounds in 1881–1885. During this period, however, the domestic production had fallen off; our sugar consumption was largely dependent upon foreign supplies.

After another 30 years, in 1911-1915, an average of 8,150,-000,000 pounds of sugar a year were required in this country, or about 84 pounds per capita.

MAJOR SOURCES OF SUPPLY.

The principal sources of supply for the sugar consumed in the United States at present may be classified as foreign, insular, and continental. The foreign sources supply approximately one-half of the sugar we use; our island possessions,

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about one-fourth; and our domestic cane and beets, the remaining one-fourth. These fractions are only roughly approximate, as the proportion from each source varies from year to year. During the five years ending June 30, 1915, the domestic sugar production amounted to about 1,873,000,000 pounds; Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines shipped in 2,130,000,000 pounds; while the imports from foreign countries, after subtracting exports, amounted to 4,147,000,000 pounds, making a total supply of 8,150,000,000 pounds. According to these figures the domestic cane and beet fields supplied 23 per cent of the sugar we used in 1911–1915, the planters of Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines furnished 26 per cent, while Cuba, supplemented by small amounts from other foreign countries, furnished 51 per cent.

During the five years ending with the season of 1915-16 the sugar consumption of the United States averaged almost 160,000,000 pounds per week. The supply for 27 weeks came from foreign countries, our island possessions furnished supplies for 13 weeks' consumption, while the product of the United States proper was equivalent to 12 weeks' average consumption. The Cuban crop, all but a small fraction of which goes to the United States, has increased greatly in recent years. The crop of 1915-16 was estimated at 6,738,-000,000 pounds and was the largest on record for the island. A still larger output was expected for 1916-17, but an uprising took place which interfered to some extent with sugar making, and the crop, according to early estimates, was from 6,300,000,000 to 6,700,000,000 pounds, the second largest ever made in Cuba. The sugar season, beginning in December, 1911, and ending the following summer, resulted in about 4,300,000,000 pounds, the largest on record to that date; and the fourth largest crop was made in 1906-7, amounting to 3,200,000,000 pounds, or less than half the crop of 10 years later. The long grinding season, large cane area, and the efficient transportation facilities make Cuba a natural source of our sugar supply. Not only is there steamship service, but the car ferry between Key West and Habana has established a railway connection over which a car may pass carrying raw sugar from a Cuban factory to a United States refinery without unloading. This route has been found advantageous in recent times, especially owing to the scarcity of ships and high freight rates on the water.

HAWAII A GOOD PRODUCER.

Of our island possessions Hawaii has the most highly developed sugar industry. There are some 50 mills, practically all of which are large or medium sized, the annual production of a mill ranging from about 4,000,000 to 100,-000,000 pounds. The season in Hawaii is long, beginning nominally about October 1 and continuing for a large part of the following 12 months. An average of the running time of all mills is from 180 to 200 days. Nearly all the crop consists of raw sugar and is shipped for refining to San Francisco and to north Atlantic ports. The shipments of Hawaiian sugar to the United States in 1911-1915 were somewhat less than 1,200,000,000 pounds a year. The area of cane in Hawaii, according to the census for 1909, was 183,230 acres, and the total of reports made to the Bureau of Crop Estimates for the season ending September 30, 1916, was 246,332 acres—an increase of about 63,000 acres, or 34 per cent. Owing to the long growing season for cane in Hawaii only about one-half of the growing acreage is cut each year. The harvested area in the season 1915-16 was 115,419 acres, or 47 per cent of the total. The yield of cane is heavy in these islands, ranging from 39 tons per acre in 1912-13 to 46 tons in 1914-15, and the cane is high in sugar content, yielding an average of 245 pounds of sugar per ton of cane in the five seasons ending with 1915-16. The average yield of sugar per harvested acre of cane was 10,495 pounds during these five seasons; and the average sugar yield based upon total acreage—harvested and not harvested—was about 5,400 pounds per acre in 1914-15 and 4,800 in 1915-16, or 5,100 as an average for both years together. Hence an acre of growing cane in Hawaii represents, on an average, a year's supply of sugar for 131 families. Cane is by far the most important crop of Hawaii, constituting in 1909 over 92 per cent of the total value of all crops. Also in manufactures sugar took the lead; its value was equal to 76 per cent of the value of all manufactures, and was about 16 times the value of the manufacture which was second in rank, namely, rice cleaning and polishing.

PORTO RICO'S LEADING INDUSTRY.

In Porto Rico in 1916 there were 65 establishments for making sugar, of which 37 each produced 4,000,000 pounds or over, 7 produced less than 4,000,000 pounds each, but at least 1,000,000 pounds, while 21 had each a crop of under 1,000,000 pounds. There were 4 large factories or centrals which made in 1916 more than 40,000,000 pounds each, and their total production was 350,000,000 pounds, or 36 per cent of the entire crop. Porto Rico's shipments to the United States, which, like Hawaii's, consist almost wholly of raw sugar, furnished in 1911-1915 over 680,000,000 pounds a year. Since the outbreak of the war (1914) the Porto Rican crops have increased greatly. The crop of the season ending in the summer of 1916 was reported officially at 967,000,000 pounds, while the 1916-17 crop exceeded 1,000,-000,000 pounds. Porto Rico's average production during the five years ending in the summer of 1915 was 727,000,000 pounds, or considerably more than double the five-year period 1901-1905, and more than five times the average production of 1891-1895. The acreage of cane in Porto Rico increased 40 per cent from 1909 to 1915; the Federal Census reported 145,000 acres in 1909, and the treasurer of the island accounted for 203,000 in 1915. This gain corresponded to a gain ranging from 260,000,000 to 275,000,000 pounds in the sugar crop. An acre of cane in Porto Rico vields on an average about 4,500 to 4,800 pounds of sugar. The reported acreage divided into the sugar production for 1916 gives an average of 4,750 pounds per acre; while figures for 1913-14, in reports of 21 factories, give an average of 4,537 pounds of sugar per acre of cane. Hence an acre of cane in Porto Rico represents a year's supply of sugar for eleven or twelve families in the United States. Cane is the principal crop of Porto Rico, the acreage (1915) of 203,000 being 36,000 more than coffee, which is the second crop in area, and 87,000 more than the total for fruits and coconuts.

Sugar holds first place in the manufactures as well as in the agriculture of Porto Rico. That industry had, in 1910, a capital of \$20,700,000, or four-fifths of the total capital for all manufacturing industries of the island; and the products (sugar and molasses) were valued at \$20,600,000, or nearly three-fifths of all manufactured products.

PRODUCTION ON THE INCREASE IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Until within the last several years Philippine sugar production was confined almost wholly to the small mills of the natives, and the product was crude sugar of a primitive type. The Philippine Government estimates the sugar production of the islands in 1915–16 as 825,000,000 pounds, while the census for 1902 reported a total of about 397,000,000 pounds. Philippine shipments to the United States during the five years 1911–15 averaged about 280,000,000 pounds a year, or about 400,000,000 pounds less than the Porto Rican shipments.

LOUISIANA INCREASING ITS SUGAR-CANE ACREAGE.

The oldest source of our domestic sugar is a section of Louisiana beginning a few miles east of the left bank of the Mississippi River and extending roughly for 100 miles westward, and on the north, from an east and west line passing not far above Baton Rouge, the sugar belt extends southward to the Gulf coast. Outside of this region cane is grown generally throughout the Gulf States, but is there used almost exclusively to make sirup and not sugar. Practically the only other cane sugar from our Southern States, outside of this Louisiana region, is made in a few scattered localities in Texas. Cane is said to have been introduced into Louisiana about 1751, and an attempt was made to make sugar eight years later but without success. It was not until 1795 that the first successful sugar mill was erected in Louisiana. The industry was originally part of farming, and the equipment was rather simple, consisting of a set of rollers for crushing the cane and some kettles for boiling the juice. The introduction of improved machinery was followed by a decline in the number of plantations having their own mills.

As early as 1845 over 45 per cent of the sugar planters in Louisiana were without sugar mills and their cane was sent to neighboring plantations for grinding. Steam power was rapidly being introduced at this time and the making of sugar increased also. About 1849 there were 1,536 sugar houses in Louisiana, or about 300 more than in 1845. The increase was largely due to steam mills, there being 235 more in 1849 than in 1845, but the horsepower mills had increased also from 610 in the earlier year to 671 in 1849. With the

increase in machinery and its consequent cost and larger efficiency, the number of mills decreased and a still larger number of planters sent their cane to neighbors' mills for sugar making. One of the most important improvements in the mill was the vacuum pan, the purpose of which is to boil the cane juice in a vacuum or under low pressure. The older mills or open-kettle concerns boiled the juice in open kettles of a few feet in diameter at the top and tapering downward, of a shape similar to half an egg. The kettles were superseded to a limited extent by open pans, which are more efficient than the kettles, but not so good as the vacuum pans. The open pans are used now largely for making cane sirup. The vacuum-pan process extracts more sugar than does the open kettle, and accordingly leaves a smaller amount of sugar in the residual molasses. This improvement has changed the quality of molasses to such an extent that molasses has come to mean not the sirup for table use but a by-product from sugar making, weak in sugar content, and usually of a more unpleasant taste than is desirable for table use. In 1849, out of 1,536 sugar houses, only 11 were reported as having vacuum pans, while in 1916, out of 150 operating sugar factories, 141 were vacuum-pan houses. Numerous other improvements were introduced. Better methods for crushing the cane and extracting the juice were used, improved systems for boiling the juice, and laborsaving devices for handling materials about the factory were adopted, and these improvements have been followed by larger and still larger outputs per factory.

In 1849 the factories averaged each about 150,000 to 175,000 pounds of sugar for the season; in 1916 the average exceeded 4,000,000 pounds. The factories had increased in size and efficiency, not only producing more sugar but getting more in proportion to the quantity of cane used. Within the Louisiana sugar belt cane is by far the most important commercial crop. In the 23 sugar parishes the cane area in 1909 amounted to 16.4 per cent of the total area of the improved land in farms. The 10 leading sugar parishes showed an area in cane equal to 35 per cent of the total improved land, and in corn 33.1 per cent of the total. The large number of mules required in the cane fields makes corn an important product for farm consumption rather than for sale. In the

parishes of St. Mary, Lafourche, and Terrebonne cane occupied 41.6 per cent of the total area in improved land, corn 30 per cent, while hay and forage occupied 16.1 per cent. Hence, practically 87 per cent of all improved farm lands in those parishes may be regarded as devoted directly or indirectly to the sugar-cane industry. Of the total amount of sugar made in Louisiana in 1916, amounting to 607,800,000 pounds, 238,000,000 pounds, or 39.2 per cent, was produced in the three parishes just mentioned. These parishes contained also 51 of the State's 150 operating factories.

The sugar belt is well served with transportation facilities. A number of railroads with branch lines and spurs deliver cane to the mills and haul sugar to market. Water transportation facilities also are good. A network of bayous and canals extends from the western side of the sugar belt to the Mississippi River. Steamboats and barges traverse these waterways carrying cane to the mills and taking sugar to New Orleans.

A large fraction of the sugar made in Louisiana is raw sugar, which is sent to the refineries to be refined and granulated; while the rest of the Louisiana product consists of high-grade sugar fit for immediate consumption.

In 1912 the sugar classed as "raw" amounted to 72 per cent of the total output, and the better grades made 28 per cent, according to the Louisiana Sugar Planters' Association. Two years later, in 1914, the higher grades constituted 59 per cent of the total, but they declined to 47 per cent in 1915 and to 35 per cent in 1916. These higher grades of sugar are not all white granulated, but include light yellow sugar.

One of the characteristics of the Louisiana sugar industry is its uncertainties. Cane does not mature there, for the growing season is too short. Cane is harvested before it is fully ripe, and the cutting season is limited to the few weeks beginning about the latter part of October and ending shortly after the cane is killed by frost. Working immature cane results in a lighter tonnage per acre than is obtained in Cuba or other tropicial countries, and it also results in a smaller sugar content in Louisiana than in the Tropics. In spite of these limitations, this State is producing a considerable part of the Nation's supply of sugar. The harvested area increased from 183,000 acres in 1915 to 221,000 in 1916,

and a further increase was made in 1917. At this rate of increase the area would soon equal that of 1911 (310,000 acres), and the total output of Louisiana would be expected to range from 500,000,000 pounds in a very unfavorable year to nearly 900,000,000 pounds under the best of crop conditions.

DOMESTIC PRODUCTION OF BEET SUGAR.

The beet-sugar production of the United States is comparatively new, amounting to an inconsiderable total only a generation ago. The industry being new, the equipment is modern, and instead of turning out a crude product, as many European mills do, our beet factories make white granulated sugar. Accordingly figures for United States production are in terms of "refined" (pure) sugar. Up to 1891-1895 the average production was slightly below 39,000,000 pounds. Five years later the average annual production (1896-1900) was about 117,000,000 pounds; the next five-year period showed an average exceeding 479,000,000 pounds, and in 1911-1915 beet sugar averaged 1,449,000,000 pounds, or more than three times the yearly average of 1901-1905. This large output in 1911-1915, however, was equal to only about nine weeks' average consumption for the United States. The crop of 1915, the largest beet-sugar crop ever made in the United States, was slightly more than 1,748,000,000 pounds, equivalent to about 11 weeks' consumption. Had the same crop conditions prevailed in 1916 as in the preceding year, the crop of 1916 would have been about 2,000,-000,000 pounds instead of the actual yield of 1,641,000,000 pounds. Unfavorable weather early in the season followed by further damage resulted in a loss of 103.000 acres between planting and harvesting. The remaining 665,000 acres yielded a poor return, especially in the East, the average yield per acre in Michigan being about 51 tons in 1916, whereas in 1915 the average in that State was 9 tons per acre. The beet-sugar factories are distributed over a wide territory, extending from northern Ohio to the Pacific coast, and from Montana almost to the Mexican border. East of the Missouri River the principal beet-sugar State is Michigan, where two-thirds of the beet acreage east of the Missouri River was located in 1916. This eastern region pro-

duced in 1916 about 108,000 tons of sugar, while the region west of the Missouri River produced 712,000 tons. The principal beet-sugar States in the West are Colorado and California, but the industry is also important in Utah, Idaho, Nebraska, and Montana. One of the western regions begins on the east with the factory at Grand Island, Nebr., on the Platte River, and follows that river and its branches. including at its western end factories and fields as far north as Billings, Mont., on the Yellowstone River, and on the south reaching almost to Denver. Another region between the crest of the Rocky Mountains and the Missouri River includes the valley of the Arkansas River from Garden City. Kans., to the Royal Gorge in Colorado, and extends southward into New Mexico. West of the Rocky Mountains the factory at Grand Junction works the beets raised in the irrigated fields along the Grand and Gunnison Rivers; a large industry is carried on in northern Utah and southern Idaho; and new fields are being developed in western Montana. In the Pacific northwest are two new factories, one that opened at Grants Pass, Oreg., in 1916, and the other at North Yakima, Wash., in 1917. The California factories are located along the coast south of San Francisco, also in the valleys of the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers.

There were 17 more beet-sugar factories operating in 1917 than in 1916, of which 14 were new. These new concerns were located at Tracy, Cal.; North Yakima, Wash.; Paul and Shelly, Idaho; Cornish, Delta, Moroni, and Smithfield, Utah; Missoula and Hamilton, Mont.; Worland, Wyo.; Brighton, Colo.; Bayard, Nebr.; and Mason City, Iowa. The factories idle in 1916 which resumed work in 1917 were at Corcoran and Hamilton City, Cal.; Janesville, Wis.; and Ottawa, Ohio. One factory which operated in 1916 was idle in 1917.

A large fraction of the beets used is produced by farmers who sell to factories. The industry is not, as in Louisiana, the outgrowth of home sugar making, but, on the other hand, is primarily a factory industry. Contracts are made between the factory operators and the beet growers before planting, and these contracts fix the basis of payment for the beets. In some cases the exact price per ton is specified, in other

contracts a minimum price is specified for beets containing a certain percentage of sugar, and a fixed amount is paid for each additional percentage of sugar in the beets above the minimum. A third modification, which has become quite general, is to offer the farmer an additional amount per ton of beets for every increase in the price of sugar of a certain fraction of a cent over a specified minimum price. This latter is a form of profit sharing by which the grower shares with the factory an increase in sugar prices. A large acreage, however, is planted and harvested by the sugar companies themselves, especially in the region west of the Missouri River.

AMERICAN REFINERIES.

Nearly all the beet sugar made in the United States comes out of the factory granulated and ready for household use, but imported sugar, the insular crop, and more than one-half of the Louisiana product are sent to refineries before being sold for consumption. There were 18 of these refineries in the United States in 1914, and their combined product was 6,666,000,000 pounds of sugar, or about fourfifths of a year's supply for the nation. The refinery differs from other sugar factories in that it does not handle cane or beets, but merely takes the lower grades of sugar and converts them into higher grades. The working season of a canesugar factory is limited by the length of the harvest period and the keeping qualities of harvested cane; and beet-sugar . factories, for like reasons, are unable to work more than a few months in a year. A refinery, on the other hand, is not prevented by natural causes from operating throughout the year. The refineries are much larger than the mills that work beets or cane. The average output of a refinery in 1914 was 370,000,000 pounds, or 17 times the average output of a beet-sugar factory in 1916, and more than 90 times the average product of a Louisiana factory the same year. Practically all the refineries are located near the seaboard, for a large part of their raw material comes by sea. Of the 18 refineries reported in the Census of 1914, 12 were near the Atlantic coast, 4 near the Gulf of Mexico, and 2 on the Pacific coast.

MINOR SOURCES OF SUPPLY.

All but a small fraction of the sugar used in the United States is made from cane or beets. Other products contributing to our supply of sweet foodstuffs, however, are worth noting. They include maple sugar and sirup, honey, cane sirup, sorghum sirup, and such cane molasses as is fit for household use. The total yearly production of these articles may be estimated roughly as about 500,000,000 or 600,000,000 pounds. To this total should be added, if figures were available, the net imports of edible molasses and the net domestic supply of glucose and grape sugar, including corn sirup.

The maple-sugar crop, according to the last census, 1909, was about 14,000,000 pounds; and maple-sirup production equaled 4,000,000 gallons, which is equivalent to about 32,000,000 pounds of sugar; making the total maple products equivalent to 46,000,000 pounds of sugar. While these figures refer to 1909, it is probable that the annual production has not changed much since then.

The honey crop of 1909 was 55,000,000 pounds, which, added to the sugar equivalent of the maple products, makes a total of 101,000,000 pounds of sweet foodstuffs.

Our domestic production of table sirup made from sugar cane was 23,000,000 gallons in 1909, while molasses, a residual product from sugar making, equaled 25,000,000 gallons. At that time the imports of foreign and insular molasses were averaging about 32,000,000 gallons a year, and exports of molasses averaged about one-tenth that amount. The present supply of molasses is probably larger, owing to recent large increases in the importation of low-grade molasses, much of which was probably for use as a raw material in manufacture. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1917, imports of foreign and insular molasses amounted to 140,000,000 gallons, and our exports of molasses were about 3,000,000 gallons.

No official figures for the total quantity of glucose and grape sugar made in this country are available, but the census for 1914 gives the value of glucose production as \$18,541,000 and grape sugar as \$3,766,000. No estimate of

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quantity is given for the former item, but grape-sugar production amounted to 174,000,000 pounds. The glucose and grape-sugar production not only goes to meet a general demand in this country, but is exported in large quantities. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1917, exports of glucose, or corn sirup, were 170,000,000 pounds, and of grape sugar, about 45,000,000 pounds.

THE WORLD'S SUPPLY OF WHEAT.

By O. C. STINE,

Assistant in Farm Economics, Office of Farm Management.

WHEAT is grown in nearly all parts of the inhabited world. (See fig. 10.) The great surplus-producing regions, however, are limited to the United States, Canada, Argentina, Australia, India, and Russia. When the world is at peace, the surplus wheat of each of these countries begins soon after harvest to move along the customary channels to the countries whose demand exceeds their supply. A low yield in one country in any year may be offset by a high yield in others, so that normally the world's supply is maintained and all countries receive their share of bread.

Table I shows the estimated annual production of wheat in the world from 1909 to 1916 inclusive.

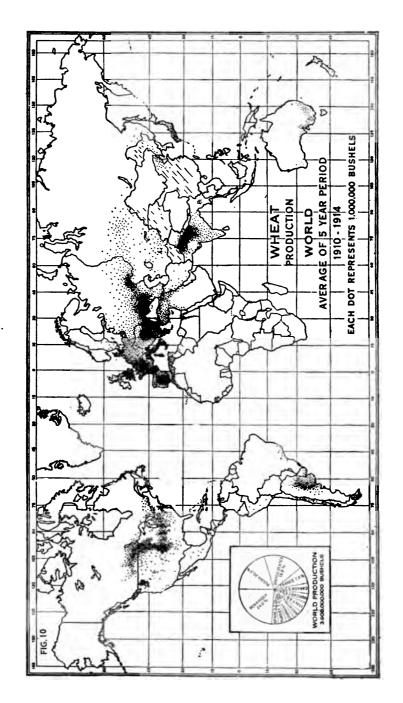
TABLE I.—World production of wheat.

(Bureau of Crop Estimate's Monthly Crop Report, May, 1917.)

Year.	Bushels.
1900	3, 582, 000, 000
1910	3, 575, 000, 000
1911	3, 552, 000, 000
1912	3, 792, 000, 000
1913	4, 127, 000, 000
1914	3, 586, 000, 000
1915	4, 145, 000, 000
1916	a 2, 984, 000, 000
	•

 $^{\rm a}$ Most of Central Europe, Poland, and Asiatic Russia not included. The countries included produced in 1915 3,433,000 000 bushels.

The world wheat crop of 1913, amounting to over 4 billion bushels, was the largest produced before the war. Short crops in Canada and Australia in 1914 reduced the total for that year to somewhat below the figure for 1913, but the increase in the acreage sown in many countries under the stimulation of high prices and patriotic appeals, together with good yields everywhere, resulted in the production in 1915 of the largest wheat crop ever harvested. In the next year there was a marked decline, and in 1917, though the total is not yet estimated, it is believed the crop is but little larger than that of 1916.



EFFECT OF THE WAR ON WHEAT ACREAGES.

Table II shows the acreage of wheat in the principal countries prior to the war as compared with that harvested since.

TABLE II.—Wheat acreage, principal countries; average 1909-1915 and annual 1915-1917.0

(Thousands of acres.)

			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
Country.	Average, 1909-10 to 1913-14.	1913 and 1913–14.	1914 and 1914–15.	1915 and 1915–16.	1916 and 1916–17.	1917 and 1917–18 (prelimi- nary esti- mates).
Allied western European countries:						
France	16,160	16, 165	14,974	b 13, 563	b 12, 429	b 10, 439
Italy	11,722	11,722	11,784	12, 501	11,679	10,556
United Kingdom	1,888	1,791	1,905	2,333	2,051	2,104
Total	29,770	29,678	28,663	28,397	26, 159	23,099
Russia, European	58,926	59,739	61,580	b 58, 224	b 48, 525	
Asiatic, 9 Governments	9,521	12,360	13,618	c 14, 532	c(14,532)	
Asiatic, other Governments	7, 287	8, 248	(8, 248)			
Total	75, 734	80,347	83, 446			
English and French colonies and dependencies:						
Canada	10,494	11,164	10, 294	14,675	12,879	14,757
Anstralia	7,608	9, 286	9,651	12,530	11,530	8, 644
India	29, 217	30,042	28, 463	32, 474	30, 142	33, 039
Egypt	1,315	1,354	1,300	1,581	1,447	1,116
Algeria	3,494	3,447	3,368	3,210	3,272	3, 222
Tuois	1,310	1,520	1,003	1,112	1,482	1,310
Total	53, 433	56, 813	54;079	65, 582	60,752	62, 088
The United States and South American experting countries:						
United States	47,095	50, 184	53, 541	60,469	52,785	45,941
Argentina	16,052	16, 244	15, 471	16,420	16,089	17,581
Chile	1,004	1,018	1,074	(1,074)	(1,074)	(1,074)
Urugnay	791	912	783	949	780	1,014
Total	64,942	68,358	70, 869	78,912	70,728	65, 610
Neutral European countries:						
Spain	9,548	9,644	9,681	10,037	10, 148	10, 223
-	.,	9, 644 104	9,681 104	10,037 114	10, 148 1 24	10 , 223 13 9

a Year of harvest in the northern hemisphere; in the southern hemisphere, year sown and harvested.

b Excluding territory in enemy occupation.

c Ten Governments.

TABLE II.—Wheat acreage, principal countries; average 1909-1913 and annual 1913-1917—Continued.

(Thousands of acres.)

Country.	Average, 1909-10 to 1913-14.	1913 and 1913–14.	1914 and 1914–15,	1915 and 1915–16.	1916 and 1916–17.	1917 and 1917–18 (prelimi- nary esti- mates).
Neutral European countries—Con.						
Denmark	114	133	133	166	152	131
Norway	12	12	12	12	11	(14)
Sweden	247	288	269	299	307	329
Total	10, 163	10,322	10,347	10, 789	10, 879	10,958
Total above, excluding Ru-	158, 300	165, 171	163, 958	183,680	168, 518	161,755
Central Powers and their allies:						
Germany	4,769	4,878	4,932	4,949	.	
Hungary (Kingdom)	9,088	7,700	8,624	8, 204		!
Austria	a 3, 012	2,997	0 1,661			
Bulgaria Turkey	2,654	2,511	2, 639			
Total	19,523	18,086	17,856			
Territory occupied wholly or in part by the Central Powers:						
Roumania	4,576	4,010	5, 219	4,705	4,842	
Serbia	8,742	10, 524	 .		 .	
Belgium	395	393	400		. 	
. Luxemburg	27	27	27	30	27	
Total	13,740	14,954				

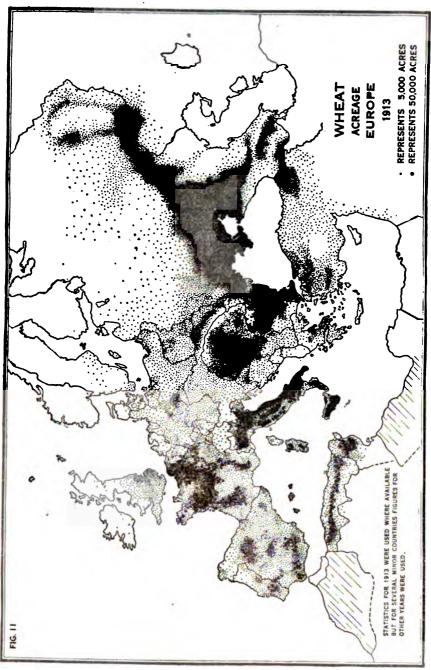
a All Hungary.

Much of the data for Tables II, III, and IV, as well as for the text, are taken from Statistical Notes on Cereals by the Bureau of Statistics, International Institute of Agriculture. Figures in parenthesis estimated by interpolation.

THE ENTENTE ALLIES.

The war has weakened the producing power of the allied European countries. In the first year a large number of farmers were withdrawn from the fields of France and the United Kingdom, fertilizers and machinery became scarce and expensive because of the need of the materials for war purposes, while at the same time the German armies overran and occupied about half a million acres of the wheat lands of France. (For the distribution of wheat acreage in Europe see fig. 11.) The result of the first year in France was a

b Exclusive of Galicia and Bukowina.



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decline of nearly one and a half million acres, with a further decline of over a million acres in 1916, and then of nearly two million acres more in 1917. Italy had not entered the war when her 1915 wheat crop was sown, which was nearly a million acres larger than usual. After this first year her wheat acreage declined about a million acres a year. In the United Kingdom the acreage increased the first year of the war and has since remained a little above the average before the war.

The reasons why the United Kingdom has been able to maintain her wheat acreage better than France or Italy deserve a word of explanation. It is less difficult to increase the wheat production of the United Kingdom than that of France or of Italy, because there is a greater proportion of arable land uncultivated but available for wheat in the United Kingdom. Great Britain, which formerly cultivated a large acreage of wheat, has, owing to the importation of cheap wheat free of duty, turned much of the wheat land into meadow and pasture, whereas Italy and France have constantly maintained a large acreage of wheat and of other cultivated crops. In the first year of the war the farmers of the United Kingdom increased their wheat acreage in the face of the scarcity of labor, of machinery, and of fertilizers, in part by sowing less barley and in part by plowing more land. The resulting shortage of barley induced the farmers to return to that crop the next year, nor were they able to maintain the total acreage in crops, and wheat declined nearly 300,000 acres. In 1917 there was a slight increase of wheat in Great Britain, and a large increase in Ireland, so that the total for the United Kingdom was greater than in 1916.

In Russia some of the wheat-producing areas have been overrun by armies, while the wheat acreage of the remainder of the country has declined, owing in part, perhaps, to the withdrawal of men from the farms, but mostly to the economic disorganization and to the lack of a foreign market for the surplus wheat.

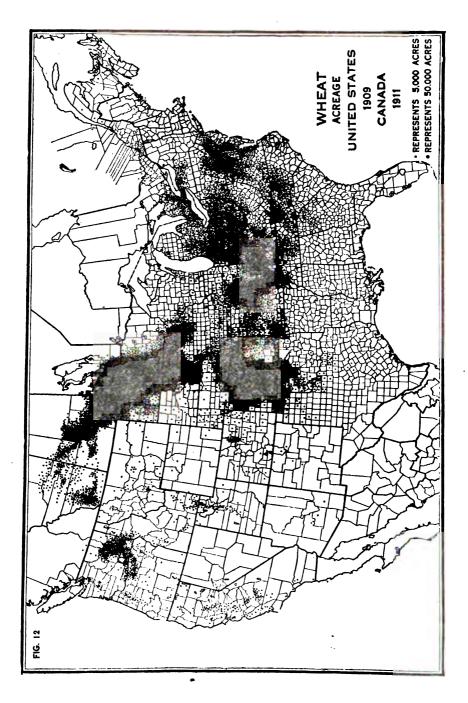
The colonial possessions of Great Britain and France have been drawn upon for men and supplies and at the same time have succeeded in increasing the acreage of wheat harvested. The wheat of the principal dependencies averaged

53,000,000 acres before the war, to which 12,000,000 were added in the first year, 1915. Canada contributed over 4,000,000 acres of this increase. The small grain in Canada ripened early in 1914, was expeditiously thrashed and marketed, and favorable weather conditions enabled the western farmers to complete an unusually large proportion of the fall plowing in readiness for the next year's crop. (For the distribution of the wheat acreage of the United States and Canada see fig. 12.) A larger acreage than usual of winter wheat was sown. The spring of 1915 opened early, and the conditions for seeding spring wheat were generally favorable. Good prices and favorable seasons induced Australia also to increase her acreage in wheat from 9,000,000 to 12,000,000, and India increased her acreage from about 28,000,000 to 32,000,000. In these countries the increase in the wheat area was not obtained at the expense of other crops; and in India the acreage in other crops also showed a large increase. In Canada and Australia the increase was probably mostly on newly broken land, while in India the increase required a curtailment of the fallow land. The wheat acreage of Egypt also increased, while no unusual change took place in the other North African districts.

Since 1915 the wheat acreage of the principal French and English possessions has been greater than the acreage before the war but has not again reached the high point of that year. India, however, in 1917 harvested a larger acreage than in 1915. Canada and Australia have lost men, not only by enlistment but also through a decline in immigration. In Canada immigration amounted to over 384,000 in 1913–14, as compared with only 49,000 in 1915–16, and in Australia to 37,000 in 1913, as compared with only 1,000 in 1916. Another reason for the decline in wheat acreage in 1916 is found in the relatively low prices received for the crop of 1915, while in Australia the large accumulated left-over stock from 1916 has tended to decrease the acreage of 1917.

THE CENTRAL POWERS.

The data on the wheat acreage of the Central Powers after 1914 are insufficient to make possible any comparisons of the acreages before and after the war began. Bulgaria



entered the war in 1915, and in 1916 a large part of Roumania was added by conquest, which greatly increased the capacity of the Central Powers to produce wheat. The northeastern section of France and the invaded parts of Russia also have contributed something to the total wheat acreage of these Powers, but, on the other hand, Austria has been deprived for part of the time of the wheat of Galicia and Bukowina.

EUROPEAN NEUTRALS.

The neutral European countries had only a small acreage before the war, but the uncertainty of the supply from other countries and high prices caused them to increase their acreage to some extent. Spain is the only country in this group which has any considerable area suitable for growing wheat, and in 1917 she had added three-fourths of a million acres to the average before the war, this increase alone being more than equal to the total acreage of all the other neutral European countries.

UNITED STATES AND SOUTH AMERICA.

The acreage of wheat in the United States and in the South American exporting countries has been affected by the war, even though at the time of seeding wheat for the harvests of 1915, 1916, and 1917 these countries had neither withdrawn their own men from their fields for service in war nor been in position to urge upon their farmers the sowing of more wheat as a patriotic duty. The total acreage of this group of countries was normally increasing before the war, owing in large part to an advance in settlement that brought into cultivation new lands physically and economically suitable for wheat production. When war broke out in Europe immigration to the New World declined and many of the former immigrants returned to fight for their mother countries. The high prices in the autumn of 1914, however, stimulated farmers in the United States greatly to increase the wheat acreage, 7,000,000 acres being added. There was an increase in Argentina of 1,000,000 acres, and a relatively large increase also in Uruguay. The lower prices received for the 1915 crop had the same effect in America as elsewhere. The higher prices in 1916 again stimulated greater activity in the sowing of wheat for 1917, but in the United States an unusually bad season for winter wheat reduced the acreage to be harvested to the lowest point in recent years. Argentina and Uruguay, however, have the largest acreage in their history to harvest in 1917–18. The net result in the United States and in South American countries in 1917 is, at the end of a period of three years of war, an acreage only slightly larger than that before the war began.

CHANGES IN WHEAT PRODUCTION.

Table III shows the changes in wheat production which have occurred in the principal countries since the beginning of the war. Production, being affected by weather conditions as well as by acreage, is not a reliable criterion of the effects due to war, but, on the other hand, statistics of production are of greater significance than those of acreage as regards the food supply of the world.

TABLE III.—Wheat production in principal countries; average 1909-10 to 1913-14 and annual 1914-1917.

(Thousands of bushels.)

	Average 1909-10 to 1913-14.	1914 and 1914–15.	1915 and 1915–16.	1916 and 1916–17.	1917 and 1917-18 (prelim- inary es- timates).
Western allied European countries:				<u> </u>	
France	317,635	282, 680	b 222,775	b 204, 908	b 144, 149
Italy	183,335	169,582	170,541	176,530	139, 999
United Kingdom	59, 638	62, 431	73, 913	60, 630	63, 824
Tetal	560, 6 9 8	514, 702	467, 229	442,068	347,972
Russia, European c	624,615	573, 376	749, 862	595, 418	
Asiatic, 9 Governments	82,371		98,740	- -	
Tetal	706, 986		848,602		
English and French colonies and de- pendencies:					
Canada	204,708	161,281	426,748	262,781	231,730
Australia	90, 499	24,894	179,627	143, 475	122,880
India	351,762	312,028	376, 726	318,002	379,303
Egypt	34, 814	32, 830	39, 146	36, 543	30,000

a Year of harvest in the northern hemisphere; in the southern hemisphere, year sown and harvested.

b Excluding territory in enemy occupation.

c Forty-eight Governments not invaded.

TABLE III.—Wheat production in principal countries; average 1909-10 to 1913-14 and annual 1914-1917—Continued.

(Thousands of bushels.)

	A verage 1909-10 to 1913-14,	1914 and 1914–15.	1915 and 1915–16.	1916 and 1916–17.	1917 and 1917-18 (prelim- inary es- timates).
English and French colonies and de- pendencies—Centinued.					
Algeria	34,998	19, 165	34,653	29, 151	28,979
Tunis	6, 224	2, 205	11,023	7, 165	7,000
Total	723, 905	552, 403	1,067,923	797,117	799, 892
The United States and South American					
exporting countries:		1		l	1
United States	686, 692	891,017	1,025,801	639,886	650, 828
Argentina	147, 062	169, 166	172,650	70, 224	237, 913
Chile	20,062	19,000	21,145	(21, 145)	(21, 145)
Uruguay	6,518	3,597	9,867	5, 390	10,000
Total	860, 334	1,082,780	1, 229, 463	736,645	919, 886
Neutral European countries:					
Spain	130,446	116,087	139, 298	152, 329	141,008
Switzerland	3,314	3,278	3,957	3, 821	4,556
Netherlands	4,898	5,688	5, 681	4,710	3,452
Denmark	5,342	5,787	7,984	6,044	(6,004)
Norway	805	268	283	.316	243
Sweden	8, 117	8, 473	9, 171	8,979	7,496
Total	152, 422	139 , 581	166, 374	176, 199	162, 799
Total above excluding Russia	2, 296, 369	2, 289, 466	2, 930, 989	2, 146, 884	2, 241, 944
Central Powers and their allies:					
Germany	152, 117	145, 945	a 141,675		
Hungary (Kingdom)	156,523	105, 237	151,405		
Austria	6 0, 840				
Bulgaria	42, 439	2 5, 981	46, 212		
Total	411,919				
Territory occupied wholly or in part			1		
by the Central Powers:		1			
Roumania	87,791	46, 297	89,786	78, 521	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Serbia	b14,775	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
BelgiumLuxemburg	14,896 614	52 5	514	433	900
Dunouerus	014	825	014	200	390
	ı	1		1	

o Incomplete.

Figures in perenthesis estimated by interpolation.

b Two years' average, 1916-11.

The production of wheat in both France and Italy has declined more rapidly than the acreage. The production in France decreased 60,000,000 bushels during the first year of the war, and in 1917 is estimated at only about half the average crop before the war began. This is owing in part to the loss of considerable wheat land now in German occupation. The yield per acre, however, has decreased from an average of 20 bushels before the war to an average of 16 bushels during the past three years. In Italy the yield per acre has decreased from an average of 17 bushels to 14 bushels. In the United Kingdom, although the acreage was greater in 1917 than before the war, the production was practically the same. The preliminary estimates for 1917 for the western European Allies as a whole are 200,000,000 bushels less than the average before the war.

It seems reasonable to expect that the scarcity of labor would result in less efficient cultivation and consequently in lower yields, but another reason for the general decline in yields in western Europe is the shortage of fertilizers. In these countries fertilizers are a requisite for the maintenance of yields. The war stopped the exportation of German potash fertilizers, and very little is available outside of Germany and her allies. The cost of the transportation of materials, shortage of labor and inability to get sulphuric acid, which is so essential in the manufacture of superphosphates and other dissolved manures, have made it very difficult for farmers to secure any commercial fertilizers. In the United Kingdom sulphate of ammonia has taken the place of nitrate of soda, which is required for the manufacture of explosives, and since January 19, 1917, the exportation of sulphate of ammonia has been prohibited. countries outside of Europe commercial fertilizer is not a very important factor in wheat production.

In Russia the crop of 1915 was estimated to be over 100,000,000 bushels larger than the average crop before the war, and the 1916 crop was but little below normal. No estimates are as yet available for the crop of 1917.

In the British and French colonies the increase in production has kept pace with that of acreage, the production during the past two years being about 100,000,000 bushels more than the average before the war.

The combined production of the United States and South American exporting countries for 1917 and 1917–18 is greater than the average before the war.

The neutral European countries increased their production in 1915 and in 1916, and the crop of 1917, while less than those of the previous years, is above the average before the war. The wheat production of the Central Powers and their allies since 1914 is unknown.

WAR MEASURES IN REGARD TO WHEAT.

Special efforts to increase wheat production have been made by the Governments of the countries engaged in the war. In Prussia in 1914 all uncultivated State lands were by decree placed at the disposal of agriculture, and in 1915 decrees were issued by Germany, Austria, and Hungary to compel the cultivation of private lands that had been neglected or that lay waste. In France by a law enacted in October, 1916, communal authorities were empowered to cultivate any arable land not in use. In the United Kingdom occupiers were required under penalties to cultivate their land to the fullest extent possible, and the Government claims the right to enter upon the premises, make a survey of the holding, and if not satisfied with the cultivation, to take measures to improve it. In 1917 the farmers in Ireland on holdings of 10 acres and over were required to cultivate the same areas as in 1916 plus 10 per cent of the whole extent of their holdings, if not over half was already under cultivation. The cantonal governments of Switzerland are requested by the Federal Council in a decree dated February 16, 1917, to undertake the cultivation for 1917, and for 1918 if necessary, of all agricultural land left untilled or not adequately farmed.

In some cases guaranteed prices, in other cases bounties or premiums have been offered to encourage production. Beginning with the harvest of 1917 and until the requisitioning of wheat is at an end, France will pay a premium equivalent to about 16 cents per bushel for wheat, and in 1917 the equivalent of \$1.56 for every acre under wheat beyond the area cultivated on the farm in the previous year. The Italian Government pays a premium equivalent to 36 cents per bushel for wheat grown upon soil brought into

cultivation in 1917 and has furthermore granted the ministry of agriculture the equivalent of about \$38,000 for the encouragement of cereal cultivation. In order that the farmers of the United Kingdom may not hesitate to break up pasture land the Government has guaranteed a minimum price for home-grown wheat for the next six years.

By act of Congress approved August 10, 1917, the President of the United States was empowered to fix a reasonable guaranteed price for wheat in order to assure producers a reasonable profit, and by the same act at least \$2 per bushel for No. 1 spring wheat or its equivalent of the crop of 1918 is guaranteed at the principal interior markets until May 1, 1919.

It is very difficult in the belligerent countries to secure labor to cultivate and harvest the crops, since the men most capable of doing such work are nearly all in the Army. Hungary and Italy the communal or municipal bodies have been authorized to requisition all labor available in the country, including women, girls, and boys. In France prisoners of war are being employed in agriculture, and mobilized men have been periodically placed at the disposal of directors of agriculture in busy seasons. A law of January, 1917, provides a credit equivalent to \$5,790,000 for the direct organization of agricultural labor. In the United Kingdom prisoners of war and interned aliens have been put to work cultivating the soil, and soldiers have been brought back and employed temporarily in the fields. The Governments of both the United Kingdom and France have provided aid for farmers wishing to purchase or secure the use of tractors and other farm machinery. The Cantons of Switzerland are empowered by the Federal Council to requisition labor and agricultural machinery. In the United States the Department of Agriculture in cooperation with the Department of Labor has organized a system of distribution of labor with a view to facilitating the movement of farm laborers in response to local demands.

¹The price for the 1917 crop was fixed at \$2.20 per bushel (No. 1 northern spring wheat, or its equivalent, at Chicago).

EFFECT OF THE WAR ON INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN WHEAT.

Table IV.—Net exports and imports of wheat, a principal countries; average 1909-10 to 1913-14 and annual 1914-15 and 1915-16.

(Thousands of bushels.)

Country.		1909-10 13-14.	1914-15		1915–16	
	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.
Allied western European countries:						
France		43.673	ļ	70, 136		90, 965
Great Britain and Ireland		216,054		204, 065		211, 263
Italy		53, 219	 	59, 719		77, 172
Total net imports		312,946		333, 920		379, 400
Russia	164, 147		7,400		13, 591	
Russia and her European allies:				<u> </u>		
Excess imports over exports		148, 799	 	326, 520		365, 809
English and French colonies and dependencies:						
Canada	94, 820		83, 845		267, 785	
India	49, 589		28,866		27, 222	.
Australia	53, 101			5, 916	55, 637	
Algeria	5, 284		3, 527		5, 126	
Egypt		7,815	 	1, 426	243	
Turais		761	-	1, 565	364	
Excess exports over imports	194, 218		107.331		356.377	
United States and South American						
exporting countries:	1	·				
United States	106, 934		311,036	••••	233, 056	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Argentina	83, 169		97, 965		85.814	-
Chile	1,032			3,068	213	
Uruguay	687		18	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	801	
Excess exports over imports	191,822		405.951		319,884	
Neutral European countries:						
Deamark		6, 293		4, 360		3. 538
Spain		6, 139		14.436		12.662
Netherlands		21.916		29,942		22, 799
Switzerland		16.924		20.514		15, 487
Sweden		7,047		6, 555	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	9, 660
Norway		3,836		7.433		5, 853
Total net imports		62.261		83 260		69, 999

[•] Including wheat flour reduced to wheat.

Table IV.—Net exports and imports of wheat, principal countries; average 1909-10 to 1913-14 and annual 1914-15 and 1915-16—Continued.

(Thousands of bushels.)

Country.	Average 1909–10 to 1913–14.		1914-15		1915–16	
	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	imports.	Exports.	Imports.
Central Powers:						
Germany 4		68, 339				
Austria b		51.341				
Hungary	40, 829					
Bulgaria	11,089		 	ļ	ļ	-
Excess imports over exports		67.762				
Territory partly in possession of Central Powers:						
Roumania	53.642		3,674		22, 347	ļ .
Belgium		49, 390		<u> </u>		
Serbia	3, 567					
Excess exports over imports	7. 719					

a Includes Luxemburg, which forms a part of the German customs union.

Table IV shows the changes effected by the war in the international trade in wheat. It was inevitable that war should cause a great change in the movement of wheat. Immediately after war was declared all nations involved and many of the neutral countries took drastic measures to secure and conserve their own supply of breadstuffs. Indeed, prior to her entrance into the war, the United States, alone among the great producers, did not restrict or direct the exports of wheat. Before the war Russia exported large quantities to the United Kingdom, Italy, and France. Roumania exported large quantities to France and Italy. The neutral importing countries also received large quantities from Roumania and Russia. After war began the western European allies imported more wheat than before the war, and, with Russia out of the market, they were compelled to turn to their dependencies and the United States and South American countries not only to make up the loss of supplies from Russia and the Balkan States, but also for wheat to meet the increased demand and dimin-

b Includes trade of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

ished production. The neutral European countries also have needed more wheat from countries outside of Europe, not only because of their loss of the wheat from Russia and Roumania, but also because they could get no rye from Russia or the Central Powers; and more wheat was necessary to take its place.

The wheat that was formerly sent from non-European countries to Germany helps to meet the extra demand of the Allies and neutrals, but most of this extra demand must be met by a world-wide increase in production as well as by a decided decrease in consumption. In 1914-15 owing to a shortage in Canada and a failure of the wheat crop in Australia the great bulk of the extra wheat for Europe had to come from the United States and Argentina. The United States had harvested a large crop and, consuming less than usual (Table V), was enabled to export 311 million bushels, 200 millions more than the average before the war. The good crops of 1915 enabled all countries to contribute toward making up the deficiencies of European countries. In 1916-17 the Argentine crop was almost a failure, which together with the shortage of tonnage for moving wheat from Australia caused the burden of supplying the European countries in 1917 to fall heavily upon the United States and Canada.

Table V.—Supply and distribution of the wheat of the United States, 1908-1917.4
Supplies

		Supply on 1			
Harvest year ending—	Crop har- vested.	In farmers' hands.	In second hands.	Total supply.	
1903	Thousands of bushels. 655,000	Thousands of bushels. 34,000	Thousands of bushels. 35,000	Thousands of bushels. 734,000	
1909	683,000	15,000	28,000	726, 000	
1910	635.000	36,000	49,000	720, 000	
1911	621,000	34,000	58,000	713, 000	
1912	730,000	24.000	54,060	808, 600	
1913	763.000	35.000	55, 900	853, 600	
1914	891,000	32, 900	44.000	967,000	
1915	1,026.000	29,000	2 6, 99 0	1,081,000	
1916	640.000	74.000	89. 9 00	803.000	
1917	651.000	16,000	32. 60 C	699,000	

Teble V.—Supply and distribution of wheat of the United States, 1908-1917— Continued.

DISTRIBUTION.

i	Bann	Con- sump-	Total	Re-	On hand at close of year.		
Year beginning July 1.	Popu- lation.	tion per capita.	sump- tion for food.	quired for seeding.	In farmers' hands.	In second hands.	Exports.
	Thou-	Bushels.		Thou- sands of bushels.	busheis.	Thou- sands of bushels.	Thou- sands of bushels.
1908	8 8, 939	5. 72	599,000	68,000	15,000	28,000	114,000
1909	90, 556	5.30	480,000	74,000	36,000	49;000	87,000
1910	92, 175	5. 23	482,000	77,000	34,000	58,000	69,000
1911	93, 793	5. 15	483,000	72,000	24,000	54,000	80,000
1912	95, 411	5. 28	594,090	71,000	35,000	55,000	143,000
1913	97,028	5.66	549,090	82,000	32,000	44,000	146,000
1914	98, 646	5.01	494,000	86,000	29,000	26,000	332,000
1915	100, 264	5.89	591,000	84,000	74,000	89,000	243,000
1916	101,882	4.70	479,009	80,000	16,000	32,000	196,000
1917	103, 500	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •					
Hypothetical distribution for	or 1917-18:						
Normal consumption		5.3	549,000	87,000	15,009	25, 600	23,000
Last year's average cons	sumption	4.7	486,000	87,000	15,000	25,000	86,000
Very low average cons	umption.	4.0	414,000	87.000	15,000	25,000	158,000

^a Chicago Dally Trade Bulletin, July 16, 1917; Monthly Crop Report, December, 1917 Yearbook, U. S. Dept. Agr., 1916.

Before the war the Central Powers, including Bulgaria, imported on an average about 68,000,000 bushels of wheat. On the other hand, Germany exported about 26,000,000 bushels of rye more than she imported. Austria lost wheat and rye by the Russian occupation of Galicia and Bukowina, but on the other hand the occupation of Serbia, Roumania, parts of Russia, and northern France have more than made good these losses. If the Belgians are left to feed themselves, assisted by the Entente Allies and neutral countries, the Central Powers and their allies under normal weather conditions should produce sufficient breadstuffs to supply their own needs very nearly, if not entirely, provided labor and fertilizer are available for production.

PRESENT WHEAT SITUATION AMONG THE ENTENTE ALLIES.

The combined wheat production of the neutral countries and of the Entente Allies, exclusive of Russia and Roumania, for the period of 1909-1913 averaged 2,296 million bushels

annually, and they retained for consumption and carryover 2,287 millions, or 9 millions less than they produced. In 1914 the same countries produced only 2 millions more than they had annually retained before the war, but in 1915 they produced 653 millions more than this average, which gave them a larger surplus than usual to carry over into 1916. However, their 1916 crops were short, amounting to only 2,152 million bushels, and estimates of requirements for 1916-17 by the Bureau of Statistics of the International Institute of Agriculture amount to 2,408 million bushels, which is 256 millions more than was produced in 1916. is evident, therefore, that the large stocks that accumulated from the 1915 crop are considerably reduced. The visible supply in Canada June 30, 1917, was estimated to be 20 million bushels, against 49 millions on July 1, 1916, and in the United States 18 millions against 49 million bushels on the earlier date. Owing to the shortage of tonnage for moving wheat from Australia, a large stock has accumulated there, but nowhere else is there any considerable quantity of surplus wheat available for export. The Russian Central Statistical Committee has published figures of stocks mostly in dealers' hands January 14, 1917, amounting to 22 million bushels, and there may be large stocks in farmers' hands which are not being offered for sale on account of the chaotic conditions and the uncertainty as to the future policy; but Russia's stock of wheat is not available for her allies.

The situation at the beginning of the year 1917-18 may be summarized as follows: The total production of the neutral and entente allied countries, exclusive of Russia and Roumania, is greater than in 1916-17 (see Table III), but stocks are low, except in Australia. The allied western European countries have produced 213,000,000 bushels less than their average before the war, but the exporting countries which supply their deficiencies are harvesting more grain this year and will probably reduce consumption, so that they may export a larger proportion of their crops. Argentina, the United States, and Canada, the three countries which are in a position to export grain in largest quantities and most easily, are harvesting this year nearly 150,000,000 bushels more than last year, and slightly more than before the war.

A large share of the needs of the Entente Allies of western Europe must be met by exports from the United States. The annual distribution of the wheat crop of the United States is shown in Table V. It will be seen that America enters into the war with a short crop and with a low stock on hand. The problem is to reduce domestic consumption of wheat products to a minimum in order that there may be as much as possible left for export to the allies.

The estimated stocks on hand July 1 added to the estimated production of the year give 699 million bushels to be distributed between July 1, 1917, and July 1, 1918. This is the lowest supply that has been available in any year. per capita consumption of wheat varies from year to year, the highest shown in the table being 5.80 bushels in 1915 and the lowest 4.70 bushels in 1916. The Bureau of Crop Estimates has estimated that the normal consumption in the United States amounts to 5.3 bushels per capita. Estimating the population of the United States this year to be approximately 103,500,000, normal consumption would require 556 million bushels: the seed requirements for next year are 87 million bushels, and by leaving only very small stocks on hand July 1, 1918, there will be only 23 million bushels left for export. If we consume wheat at the rate computed for last year, 4.7 bushels per capita or 0.6 bushel less than the normal amount, there will be approximately 86 million bushels for export. The investigations of the Bureau of Crop Estimates determined that the normal consumption of wheat in some of the Southern States, where little wheat is raised and the people eat much corn bread, was only 4 bushels per capita. If the people of the entire United States will substitute corn and potatoes for wheat to the extent that some of the Southern States do, the per capita consumption may be lowered to 4 bushels, and then there will be 158 million bushels available for export. Even this amount is considerably below what the United States has contributed to the allies during the previous years of the war, for the exports of domestic wheat during 1914-15 were 332 million bushels and during 1915-16 they were 243 million.

CEREAL DISEASES AND THE NATIONAL FOOD SUPPLY.

BY HARRY B. HUMPHREY.

Office of Cereal Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.

T MMEDIATELY the eye of the lay reader meets with the expression "cereal diseases," he is apt to think merely of smuts and rusts. To the average farmer there are, practically speaking, no other diseases of cereal crops; while to the man of the street, whose knowledge of the farm and its problems is limited or wholly wanting, what he may know of these diseases may be-nearly always is-knowledge gained through hearsay or from the press. To be sure, the smuts and rusts are, of all our cereal diseases, the most obvious, because of their occasional epidemic abundance and their great destructiveness. Frequently their presence is so marked and the damage wrought is so great as to obscure entirely the presence of any other disease except to the eye of the trained observer. In 1916 this country suffered from the biggest cereal-disease toll ever paid in any one season by the wheat growers of the spring-wheat States. The report went out over the country that the spring-wheat crop of the four States of Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Nebraska had been damaged to the amount of 181,000,000 bushels. All this destruction was popularly attributed to the ravages of black rust, Puccinia graminis, though we know as a matter of fact that approximately one-third of it was certainly attributable to the combined effect of scab, smut, hot, dry winds, and possibly other less obvious factors.

In late years we have learned to recognize the fact that our cultivated cereal crops are subject to several diseases other than the relatively long-known smuts and rusts. Moreover, many of these, as, for example, the stripe disease of barley, not infrequently result in damage amounting in some fields to as much as 10 to 50 per cent of the crop affected. Then there are those more or less ill-defined root diseases concerning which there seems to be a paucity of

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real facts and a disproportionate amount of speculation. It is probably true that fungi such as Fusarium, Helminthosporium, Colletotrichum, and Alternaria present in the soil, on the seed or within it, under growth conditions favoring their development may seriously reduce the vigor and subsequent producing power of affected plants. Indeed, it has been demonstrated by field and greenhouse experiments that seed wheat, either naturally or artificially inoculated with the spores of these ubiquitous molds, shows a reduction in germinability amounting in some instances to as much as 30 per cent of the total number of seeds planted. Added to this failure to germinate, we find that in such seed there is often a certain percentage of weak, stunted seedlings which, if they grow to maturity, serve only to depress the curve of normal production. Among these more obscure diseases of cereals are to be included the root rot of maize. the canker and wilt diseases of flax, and straighthead of rice. The last mentioned of these diseases seems in no sense traceable to parasitic causation, and in the accepted sense in which we apply the term is hardly to be classified as a disease, for, instead of manifesting symptoms of disease lesions, as in the rusts, or the destruction of organs, as in the case of the smuts, plants affected with straighthead become vegetative monsters in that they fail altogether to produce blossoms and seed. More accurately are they to be compared to plants suffering from a glut of nitrogen than to plants infected with some disease-producing organism.

In recent years our attention has been called to the fact that in addition to the smuts, rusts, mildews, blights, and wilts of cereal crops traceable to parasitic fungi, certain more or less destructive cereal diseases are attributable solely to specific bacteria. A well-known example of such a malady is Stewart's disease of maize, to which the sweet varieties show greatest susceptibility, while in the ordinary field-corn varieties it has been but infrequently observed. Within the last three years a serious bacterial disease of wheat, affecting practically every organ of the plant, including the leaves and glumes and extending from the latter to the immature kernel, has been observed in several of the Mississippi and Missouri Valley States and in California. The disease has been traced to the parasitism of a specific

organism which has been found very generally present on or within the wheat grains. The investigation of this important bacterial disease is now being vigorously pushed by the Office of Plant Pathology, Bureau of Plant Industry, in cooperation with the agricultural experiment station of Wisconsin. Whether the disease is identical with that of barley now being studied by Jones, Johnson, and Reddy is yet to be determined. That it is of considerable economic importance can no longer be doubted, but our knowledge of its relation to climatic factors is so meager as to make it impossible at this time to foretell what may be its annual effect on the wheat crop of those sections where it is known to have established itself.

CEREAL SMUTS.

From the standpoint of their importance to the Nation's food supply, the smuts and rusts of cereals easily take first rank. Of the smuts, 11 are known to occur in the United States, 8 of which are of economic interest and are here named in the order of their importance. They are: Bunt or stinking smut of wheat; covered and loose smuts of oats (Pl. LXX, fig. 1); covered smut of barley (Pl. LXX, fig. 2); loose smuts of wheat and barley; the smuts of corn and allied crops; the stem and loose smuts of rye; and rice smut. The distribution of these smuts is, generally speaking, universal and as widespread as is the culture of the crop concerned. With the possible exception of the stem smut of rye, they have probably been exacting their yearly toll from our flour and feed stocks since the beginnings of American history. And now, notwithstanding the fact that many of these smuts are easily preventable, those most easily subject to control are the smuts which to-day, according to reasonably conservative estimates, are annually destroying 20,000,000 bushels of wheat, upwards of 50,000,000 bushels of oats, and 6,000,000 bushels of barley. In the same class of preventable smuts are to be included the kernel smuts of sorghum and broom corn (Pl. LXXI, fig. 1) and the stem smut of rye, but concerning the losses occasioned by these we lack the information that would enable us to make trustworthy estimates. Then there are the loose smuts of wheat and barley, also preventable, but only by the more laborious and exacting hot-water

treatment, which in this country has not been generally adopted. These smuts probably cause a combined annual loss of 6,000,000 bushels of wheat and half as many bushels of barley. It would doubtless be safe to say that we are paying out annually as a price for what amounts to national negligence grain enough to fill an elevator of 90,000,000 bushels capacity. And this vast and really inexcusable toll is exacted by preventable smuts. To this we must add for corn smut one-half of 1 per cent of the total annual crop, or approximately 15,000,000 bushels.

CEREAL RUSTS.

While the destruction wrought by the smuts is in very great measure preventable, the same is not true of the cereal rusts, and in epidemic years the losses are sometimes, as, for example, in 1916, so serious as to amount to almost a complete crop failure in the spring-wheat States, where in years of normal production the yield amounts to 160 million bushels or more.

The cereal rusts, of which there are 12 in this country common to wheat, oats, barley, and rye, may, for our convenience, be divided into three groups, i. e., stem rusts, leaf rusts, and vellow-stripe rust. Of these the stem or black rust (Puccinia graminis), particularly that of wheat, is in this country the most important. There is seldom a year when the losses occasioned by the stem rust of wheat are not to be figured in millions of bushels. But it is in epidemic years, such as that of 1916, that this menace gives real concern to a bread-hungry world. Added to these losses are those caused by leaf rust; insignificant, to be sure, in contrast to those caused by stem rust, but important enough in these times of declining total yields to call for thought and investigation with a view to developing varieties which may possess some degree of immunity from this and other rusts. Leaf rust of wheat (Puccinia triticina), like stem rust, varies from vear to year in its severity and economic importance and is most destructive in the more humid Southern and Southeastern States, where, indeed, it may sometimes actually constitute a limiting factor to wheat production. Leaf rust, known among most farmers as red rust, has received little attention from the pathologist interested in cereal rusts, for the

reason that it has generally been regarded as incapable of doing more than slight, almost negligible, damage.

Of the other leaf rusts, that of barley (Puccinia simplex) is not widely distributed in this country and is not generally known to cause serious damage, though records obtained by the writer from varietal test plats at Arlington, Va., indicate that under favorable rust conditions it can actually kill affected plants.

Leaf rust of oats, commonly called crown rust (Puccinia coronata), is not infrequently responsible for pronounced losses in different parts of the United States, particularly in the South, where its ravages have reduced the growing of oats to a few resistant varieties belonging to the red-oat group, such, for example, as Burt or Early Ripe, Appler, and Cook. Resistance to crown rust is more frequently met with than resistance to stem rust, but thus far this quality has not been observed in any varieties of the white or yellow oat group in which we find our highest yielders. It follows that in order to get the desired combination of rust resistance and yield in a hybrid resembling its white-oat parent we must again have recourse to breeding and selection.

A cooperative study of both the stem and crown rusts of oats was undertaken in 1914 with the agricultural experiment station of Iowa. During the observations of 1914 it was found that the variety known as White Tartarian was more or less resistant to stem rust, but not at all so to crown rust. By crossing and selection we may obtain varieties showing resistance to stem rust, coupled with good grain quality and high yielding capacity.

A preliminary study of the progeny arising from a cross of the Burt and Sixty-Day varieties has shown that resistance to crown rust is a heritable character, capable of being transferred to hybrid individuals, some of which may be expected to have all the desirable characters of the white-oat parent plus the rust resistance of the red variety. Thus do we hope in course of time to develop suitable and well-adapted varieties of oats resistant to both of the rusts which now make it impossible to grow, except more or less locally, the most productive and generally acceptable sorts.

One of the most interesting and important developments in the history of cereal-rust investigations in the United

States in late years was the discovery of the stripe rust, Puccinia glumarum, in the summer of 1915. It was first observed, almost simultaneously, by F. Kølpin Ravn, of Copenhagen, on wheat in Arizona, and by A. G. Johnson, of Madison, Wis., on a species of wild barley near Tehachapi, Cal. Since then it has been found on barley and rye and on nearly a score of wild grasses and is known to have been collected in this country 25 years ago, but referred to another species. Thus far it has not been found east of the Black Hills, nor has it been observed beyond the confines of the western mountain flora. Why, in all these years, this rust has not reached down from the mountains and their valleys into the Great Plains and the more humid valleys tributary to the Mississippi is a question that yet remains to be answered. We know that the selfsame rust in Europe works havoc among the wheat and barlev fields of Denmark, Sweden, Germany, and other European countries with climatic conditions of summer not unlike those of many sections of the United States where this rust is still unknown, but where other cereal rusts abound and are occasionally the most destructive of all our grain-crop pests. may be here, as in the case of the western form of stem rust. that we have a variety of the vellow stripe rust, typical not of Europe nor indeed of the United States save in the Pacific Coast and tributary Intermountain States.

CONTROL MEASURES FOR SMUTS.

Of fundamental importance to our knowledge of plantdisease control is a thorough understanding of those factors and conditions which contribute to disease. We have spent and are spending annually much money and time in the investigation of parasitism and in working out the details of the life histories of organisms known to induce plant disease. Before we can apply known methods of control or intelligently proceed with the devising of new ones, we must know something of the factors inducing the condition which we desire to control. So, preventing the stinking smut of the Pacific Northwest was found to call for something more than a knowledge of the life history and habits of the causative organism, something more than a knowledge of seed treatment technique. In fact, the solution of this problem will require an understanding of soil management, of spore distribution, and of those meteorologic factors which influence the development of both host and parasite.

In all countries where cereal production is an important source of income, a knowledge of the control of the more serious diseases has become more or less general. In the United States, for example, the Federal Government and State experiment stations have spent vast sums of money in getting at the facts concerning the smuts and rusts and in getting these facts before the public in the form of bulletins, press notices, extension lectures, and in other ways. As a result, knowledge of the smuts and methods of controlling them has become general; in fact, much more so than the application of that knowledge. With the organization of the extension service in the several States there has come about a revival of interest in the value of seed treatment, to the end that in some States, as, for example, in New York, Nebraska, and Illinois, well-organized and successful campaigns against oat smut have been conducted which have resulted in a saving to the farmers of each State amounting in these times of high prices to many times the annual cost of maintaining the entire staff of county agents in the States concerned. But the county agent has other duties, and we have found that, save in a few States where seed-treatment campaigns have been specially featured, there exists great need of an extension of our knowledge of seed treatment by demonstration. Treatment of the seed wheat, oats, or other cereal has been found to be a profitable practice, not alone because of its value as a smut preventive but because of its generally salutary effect on germination (Pl. LXXI, fig. 2); not that it has been demonstrated that the action of formaldehyde or the salts of copper or mercury really exerts a stimulating influence, but rather it is more reasonable to infer that such improvement in germination and seedling development as follows seed treatment is to be accounted for in the established evidence that the commonly recommended chemical baths, formaldehyde in particular, prevent in very large measure the development of superficial, harmful fungi that are present on the seed or in contact soil.

As a part of the nation-wide campaign for a billion-bushel wheat crop in 1918 and for increased cereal production gen-

erally, the Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with the extension service of the several States in which cerealcrop production is an important source of income, initiated this year a campaign for the prevention of smuts. For this work forty or more men have been employed since early September. Without exception these field men have been selected with particular regard to training and experience in agronomy and plant pathology, supplemented by actual farm experience. They are working in conjunction with county agents and farm advisers wherever practicable, in some instances offering these men instruction regarding the cereal smuts and methods of seed treatment. In others, the work is being incorporated as a part of the agricultural teaching of public schools, where all the details pertaining to seed treatment are actually performed by the students them-Not infrequently the men engaged in this work have carried the campaign into farming communities, where they have conducted a farm-to-farm course of practical instruction and have thereby succeeded in getting many growers to treat their grain when otherwise but little, if any, would have been treated. Farmers' organizations have been addressed, demonstrations before county and State fairs have been made, and every reasonable opportunity has been used not only to bring the people to a realizing sense of the importance of seed treatment, but, what is more to the point of the present-day emergency, thousands of bushels of wheat, oats, barley, and rye have this fall been properly treated where last year there were but 10, and much of the 10 but indifferently or improperly sprinkled or dipped.

On completion of the present season's work of seed treatment in the Southern States, the campaign will be carried into those States where spring planting is the rule and practice. Here the work will consist chiefly of the treatment of oats and barley, save in the States of Minnesota and the Dakotas, where spring wheat is the leading grain crop. With the completion of this phase of the campaign the men will return to the Southern States, where they will begin a field survey in order to determine the results of seed treatment on those farms where treated seed has this year been planted. In addition to this, observations and records will be made on the occurrence and damage wrought by the vari-

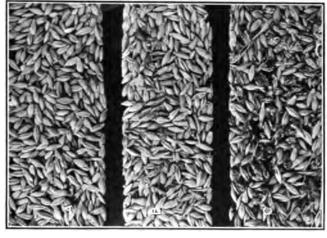


FIG. 2.—COVERED SMUT OF BARLEY.

A, Original seed, crop of 1907; B, result in next year's crop without seed treatment; C, result in third year's crop without seed treatment. The use of formaldebyde would have prevented these losses.

Covered smut on the left; loose smut on the right.
These two smuts, easily prevented by chemical treatment, destroy annually enough eats to feed

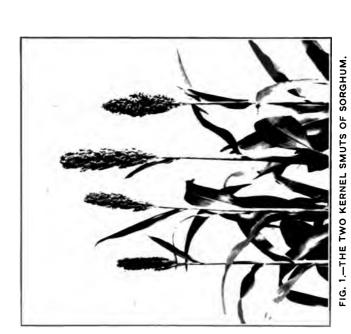
1,000,000 horses for the period of a year.





FIG. 2.—PREVENTION OF SMUT IN OATS.

Row on left planted to seed treated with cresol. Cheek row alongside shows a high percentage of smut. The use of formaldehyde would have resulted in an equally good percentage of control with less seed injury.



treatment

Normal heads of blackhull kafir in the middle, with head of loose-kernel smut on left and head of covered-kernel smut on right. The two kernel smuts are more common in this country than is head smut of scriptum. They are known to cause as much as 25 per cent loss in some fields of the Southwest. Head smut can not be prevented by chemical fields of the Southwest.



FIG. 2.—RESULT OF CROSSING A RUST-RESISTANT DURUM VARIETY ON A RUST-SUS-CEPTIBLE COMMON OR BREAD WHEAT.

The barberry, widely planted for ornamental purposes, is a secondary host of the stem rust.

FIG. 1.-FLOWERING SPRAY OF THE

COMMON BARBERRY.

Bread wheat of the Preston (Minn, 188) variety on the left: Female parent. Durum or macaroni wheat of Iumillo variety (C. I. 1736) on the right: Male parent. Partially resistant hybrid in middle.

PLATE LXXIII.

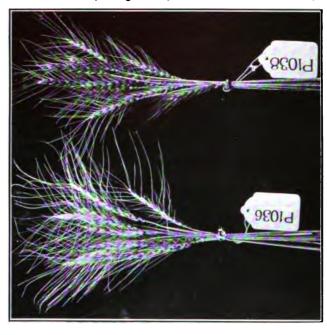


FIG. 2.—SAMPLES OF TWO RUST-SUSCEPTIBLE VARIETIES GROWN CLOSE TO THE PLAT FROM WHICH THE HEADS OF KANRED SHOWN IN FIGURE 1 WERE TAKEN.

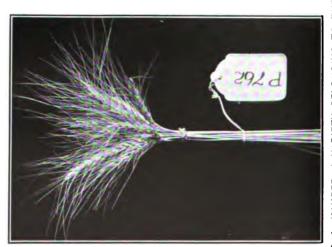


FIG. 1.—KANRED, A VARIETY BELONGING TO THE TURKEY (CRIMEAN) GROUP OF COMMON WHEAT AND POSSESSING A HIGH DEGREE OF IMMUNITY TO STEM RUST.

ous grain smuts, in order that we may the more intelligently and effectively conduct the seed-treatment campaign of 1918 in the event that provision be made for continuing the work now under way.

It would be difficult, indeed, to predict what may be the return in bushels of grain saved from smut as a net result of our cooperative effort to eliminate the enormous waste we have so long permitted—a waste of sufficient wheat to supply our allies with 4,000,000 barrels of flour, and oats enough to feed 1,100,000 horses for the period of a year. But, all things considered, if this salvage work be even 50 per cent efficient, we shall certainly not have labored in vain.

Not a little has been said and written on the subject of seed treatment according to the community-center plan; but, advisable and desirable as it may be to establish control treating plants on a community basis, it is felt that the time is not ripe for getting the thing done. Public concern must first be thoroughly aroused to the importance, yes, the necessity, of smut prevention before we shall see any general adoption of the community-center idea. That the campaign of education now being conducted by county agents and special field agents will result in a widespread demand for seed treatment can hardly be doubted; and it is not unlikely that the community-center plan will ultimately find favor as an economical and convenient system of seed disinfection. Already an occasional report comes in from this or that section of the country where part or all of the seed wheat of a neighborhood has been treated at a grain elevator, a mill, or a cooperative creamery or cheese factory, and with general satisfaction.

Loose smuts of barley and wheat are yearly destroying enough grain to purchase outright a full-rigged superdreadnaught. These smuts are controlled only by the hotwater treatment, the proper application of which is so difficult as to make it unpopular with the individual farmer. The community-treatment plan would make it easily possible to treat seed wheat and barley for the prevention of these two smuts, and if each treatment plant could be operated by a trained expert all seed could be given standard treatment according to the kind of smut. Each lot of seed when treated should be tested for germination, and the owner could

then be supplied with a certificate giving information as to kind and character of treatment and percentage of germination after treatment.

CONTROL OF STEM RUST.

While it is true that all ordinary control measures, such as seed treatment, soil management, and spraying, are useless in our efforts to control the rusts, the situation is not necessarily hopeless. In certain European countries, notably Denmark, laws have been enacted compelling the eradication of the barberry (Berberis vulgaris), the secondary host of the common stem rust (Pl. LXXII, fig. 1). It is now a wellknown fact that the enforcement of the barberry law in Denmark has actually reduced by a very considerable amount the frequency and severity of stem-rust epidemics in that country. With the Danish results as an incentive the Department of Agriculture last year initiated a barberry and stem-rust survey of the Mississippi Valley in order to obtain data on the distribution of the barberry, on the probable relation of this shrub to the occurrence of stem rust on the four common cereals, and on the distribution and number of wildgrass hosts and the relationships existing between the wildhost forms of stem rust and the cultivated cereals. In the event that we should establish the fact that the recurrence of serious stem-rust epidemics in the United States is chargeable to the presence of bridging hosts among the wild grasses and to the common barberry, a general campaign looking to the gradual elimination of these more or less useless hosts will be launched. Indeed, it should be said that already this phase of the rust survey has not been overlooked, for much has been done toward arousing effective public sentiment against the barberry in the spring-wheat States. North Dakota went so far last year as to enact a barberry law, the subsequent enforcement of which has done much to rid that State of its hedges and other barberry plantings.

RUST-RESISTANT VARIETIES.

In addition to the barberry and rust survey as a possible measure leading to some degree of control of stem rust, definite progress has been made in the development of rust-resistant varieties of wheat by breeding and selection. It is now nearly 15 years since the beginning of serious work

in this country on this phase of the rust problem. During this time we have had a number of "rust" years, which have afforded opportunity to make valuable observations on the behavior of a large number of recognized varieties as well as a very numerous progeny derived from artificially crossed parent strains. Little more can be said here than that we have made a fair beginning and that the work thus far accomplished has opened a field full of promise. Recognizing the difficulties and temptations which beset the path of the plant breeder and the imperfect knowledge we have of what constitutes varietal resistance, it can still be truthfully said, generally speaking, that of the eight so-called species of wheat, but one (Triticum durum) shows any marked degree of rust resistance as a species. And yet we should not for a moment accept the idea that merely because a variety is a durum or macaroni wheat it is rust resistant. Many of the durum varieties show little or no resistance. On the other hand, quite recently there has been found among the common bread wheats a limited number of varieties which exhibit marked resistance to stem rust and give promise of making excellent wheats for those parts of the country to which they are best adapted.

In cooperation with the experiment stations of Minnesota, Kansas, and Tennessee, the Department of Agriculture is conducting important research work with a view to developing rust-resistant sorts of wheat which at the same time will satisfy the most rigid agronomic requirements and possess all the virtues of the best milling and baking varieties of the common bread wheats. At St. Paul, in cooperation with the Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station, the work has been in progress since 1907 and has consisted (1) of extensive variety testing of hundreds of varieties of the several species of wheat, but more particularly of the common bread wheats and the durum sorts; and (2) crossing rust-resistant durums and emmers with the common wheats to secure rust-resistant hybrids. From the many variety tests, comprising literally hundreds of different spring sorts of bread wheats, we have vet to find a single variety in which we have the ideal combination of the desired qualities, i. e., resistance to stem rust, high yield, strength of straw, and high milling and baking quality. Only a single variety, Black Persian, shows well-defined resistance to stem rust, but it is otherwise se disappointing as to make it of inferior value for culture.

Resistance to stem rust among the durum wheats has been satisfactorily demonstrated for a number of varieties at St. Paul and elsewhere, in entire agreement with earlier observations and tests. Strains of Kubanka and Iumillo have shown a degree of resistance amounting almost to immunity, and this regardless of the field or greenhouse conditions under which we have grown them (Pl. LXXII, fig. 2). Almost equally resistant are the varieties D1 and D5 introduced into the United States by Bolley, and a variety known as Acme, selected and distributed by the South Dakota experiment station. This last-named sort has given a very good report of itself in South Dakota, but has proved somewhat disappointing when grown under more humid conditions. variety Mindum, now being increased by the Minnesota experiment station, has given particular promise as a rustresistant durum well suited to the more humid conditions of the country about St. Paul.

In our study of the emmers, two outstanding examples of stem-rust resistance, falling little short of immunity, have come to light. Many types of emmer are quite susceptible, but the short, vigorous, and extremely early East Indian variety known as Khapli has never, in our experience, been seriously rusted, even when grown under most severe epidemic conditions. Still more remarkable has been the behavior of a white spring emmer, Minnesota No. 1165. Rarely in this variety do rust sori develop beyond the fleck stage.

Admitting the desirability or even possibility of growing durum varieties universally throughout the area devoted to the hard spring wheats, we might find in this an easy solution of the rust problem. But, since the durum wheats are not successfully grown in the eastern and more humid portion of this area, and since the millers and bakers insist upon the production and supply of the common bread wheats, there seems at present to be no direct approach to a solution of this the most important of all the cereal-disease problems.

Coincident with the selection studies, we have sought through hybridization to produce, if possible, a new variety

of wheat representing a combination of the desirable characters of the best varieties of both groups, namely, the rust resistance of the durums or emmers with the yield, adaptability, and milling and baking qualities of the common wheats. None of our emmer and common-wheat crosses has resulted in any hybrid of great promise, for the reason that thus far it has been difficult to obtain rust-resistant segregates of the common-wheat type; but from the durum and common-wheat crosses have come several exceptionally resistant forms, most of which, however, had little else to recommend them, while, from among the thousands of hybrid types produced, a few have stood out as promising embodiments of all the coveted qualities of the ideal wheat. Particularly has this been true of hybrids obtained by crossing Kubanka with Haynes and Kubanka with Preston wheat.

As has already been noted, some of these durum and common-wheat hybrids give much promise, but our ideal must be a variety equal or superior to present-day types, a combination that will meet the requirements imposed upon it by the pathologist, the farmer, the miller, and the baker. As to what may be expected to come out of the future it may be asserted, and we think correctly, that the goal has been all but reached. In fact, results thus far obtained, and those now in sight from a new and more extensive series of crosses made and to be studied intensively from the standpoint of the geneticist, make it possible to predict that within a few years there may be available for distribution to the farmers of the hard spring-wheat belt a rust-resistant, high-yielding bread wheat.

In like manner studies of winter-wheat varieties have been in progress since 1913 in cooperation with the Kansas Agricultural Experiment Station. In 1916 out of the many varieties of hard red winter wheats tested for stem-rust resistance were three, now known as Kanred P762, P1066, and P1068, which were remarkably resistant (Pl. LXXIII). More noteworthy and valuable than the mere discovery of such marked resistance to stem rust in winter varieties of common wheat is the excellent showing thus far made by this new variety Kanred. According to the agronomic records of the

Kansas station, it is the highest yielding hard wheat of that State and has met the standard set by miller and baker alike. Because of its many-sided excellence this new variety has this fall been distributed to farmers in quantities aggregating more than 8,000 bushels.

To the Kansas or Nebraska farmer, so far as concerns its resistance to stem rust, Kanred wheat is of but secondary interest. But to the plant breeder in quest of resistant sorts, without recourse to the more laborious and time-consuming durum and common-wheat route, the discovery of Kanred has heralded the dawn of a less remote victory. Kanred offers him his golden opportunity.

In cooperation with the agricultural experiment station of Tennessee it is our aim to accomplish for the Southern and Southeastern States what is being done in the spring-wheat belt and in the hard red winter-wheat section. It may be a long road we are traveling, but at the end we hope to find those varieties of wheat whose resistance to the rusts which prey upon them is so great as to make wheat production once more profitable, once more well worth while, in sections of the United States where now the rusts constitute a limiting factor.¹

IMPORTANCE OF RACE IMPROVEMENT.

Recognizing, as we must, the vital importance of varietal improvement by breeding and selection as the one practical thoroughly tested method of controlling the rusts (pending results from the eradication of the barberry), we are equally impressed by the fact that by the same method we must finally seek to control virtually all cereal diseases.

We can ill afford at any time, and least of all in the present, to annul by neglect of any commendable farm practice the benefits derived through the development of disease-resistant varieties; but, added to this, if we are not to betray a trust and squander a precious heritage, we must avail ourselves of every known means of increasing cereal-crop production.

¹The writer wishes to acknowledge his appreciation of the assistance afforded him by Mr. John H. Parker and Mr. Leo M. Melchers, of the Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kans.

In this great campaign against the enemies of our most important food plants we must present a united front, we must wage a consistent and continuous offensive; we must give more and more attention to the development of varieties of disease-resistant cereals. Then we shall have enough and to spare and shall make for better days in postwar times.

THE SEED SUPPLY OF THE NATION.

By R. A. OAKLEY.

Agronomist in Charge of Seed Distribution, Bureau of Plant Industry.

In ADDITION to the thousands of tons of seed potatoes, seed sugar canes, and other vegetative planting stocks, the American farmer puts into the ground every year upward of 7,000,000 tons of seed in order to produce the prospective harvest. A small but important part of this is not taken from his own crops. In normal years the matter of his seed supply gives the farmer relatively little concern. Most of it he produces and saves as an incidental routine feature of his ordinary farming operations, and the remainder he purchases from local merchants, who frequently are hardware or implement dealers handling field or garden seeds as a side line. It is only when unusual conditions obtain or when he wishes to try a new crop that he evinces any considerable interest in the seed business.

The country's seed supply is indeed of but casual interest to the layman under ordinary conditions. Since the beginning of the war in Europe, however, conditions affecting America's seed supply have departed from the normal sufficiently in many cases to stimulate a general interest in the subject, even among those who are not directly concerned with it. It is safe to say that commercial geography as it relates to agricultural products is more studied and better known by the average American to-day than ever before, and commerce in seeds has come in for its share of study. The present emergency brings very forcibly to our attention the vital necessity of a large food supply and directly, also, the importance of the seed to produce it. Furthermore, it brings to us the realization that we have not been independ-

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¹ Many of the statistical data presented in this paper were furnished by the Bureau of Crop Estimates, United States Department of Agriculture. The author wishes to express his thanks for the valuable assistance rendered by that bureau in the preparation of the article.

ent of foreign countries in the matter of the seeds needed by our farmers and gardeners.

The situation growing out of the war has caused us not only to look carefully to our own seed growing as already' established and to consider the production of that portion of our supply normally obtained from abroad, but also to grow for export certain seeds that we had formerly imported. The change in conditions has been rapid, and the outcome has caused considerable uncertainty in the minds of our producers, dealers, and users as to the adequacy of the supply of seeds for use at home. The market reflects this uncertainty in many instances.

The question very frequently has been asked, "Why has this country not been self-reliant so far as her seed supply is concerned?" To arrive at the answer, although not altogether a simple problem, is not particularly difficult. It was primarily for economic reasons, augmented by soil and climatic factors, and not in the main because of any great lack of business foresight on our part. Custom, and possibly horticultural prejudice likewise, has played a minor rôle. In fact, many of the seeds needed here could be produced more cheaply, and in some cases apparently more satisfactorily, abroad. Labor was cheaper in Europe and the Orient than in America, and seed production requires a relatively large amount of hand labor. The cost of transportation of seeds from the larger European markets to points east of Chicago was less than from certain of our Western States, where seeds are grown commercially, to these points. A suitable climate and the accumulated experience of skilled seed growers also favored foreign production in many cases.

At one time Europe was depended upon to furnish us with practically our entire supply of certain important seeds. Now, with the European supply unavailable, or at best to be secured only with great difficulty, the charge of short-sightedness against our seed growers for not being in a position quickly to produce seed to meet our requirements at home might appear to be warranted, but is really not justified. The case of sugar-beet seed at once comes to mind, but it should be remembered that our sugar companies have been actively investigating the possibility of domestic sugar-beet seed production for years. Horticultural prejudice has

operated, and is still operating to some degree, against the domestic production of seed of certain kinds. However, such prejudice is rapidly being overcome, much to the benefit of our farmers and market gardeners.

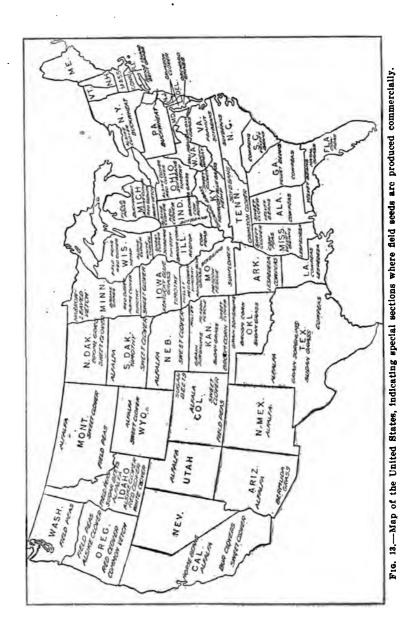
Economic conditions and other contributing factors have brought to our farms undesirable as well as desirable seeds, seeds of low quality as well as those of high quality and, unfortunately, much potential trouble and loss in the form of noxious weed seeds and adulterants which our seed-importation laws could not entirely prevent.

SPECIALIZATION IN SEED HANDLING NECESSARY.

It would be difficult accurately to estimate the percentage of the seed used by the American farmer that passes through commercial channels. Suffice it to say that the percentage is relatively small, though the total quantity is very great. and the handling of it is so important as to have resulted in the development of extensive and rather complex commercial machinery, including in its make-up the farmer who grows seed incidentally, the commercial seed grower, both small and large, the jobber, wholesaler, and retailer. Whether or not the system is unnecessarily complex, the fact remains that on the whole it is a valuable adjunct to our agriculture. Experienced seed growers and legitimate seedsmen are highly essential to crop production. The growing of certain important seeds can not safely be left to untrained hands, and storing, cleaning, grading, and distribution can be successfully accomplished only by experienced dealers.

SEED BREEDING BY COMMERCIAL AGENCIES.

Experienced seed growers have done much in the way of maintaining and developing improved varieties of crop plants. In this, it is true, they have followed "rule-of-thumb" methods to a very large degree, but it is safe to say their total accomplishment in crop improvement is greater than that of the technical plant breeder. With few exceptions, horticultural varieties of garden vegetables or truck crops are directly attributable to the efforts of enterprising seed-growing seedsmen. It is with this class of crops that seed growers have done their best work in plant breeding, prob-



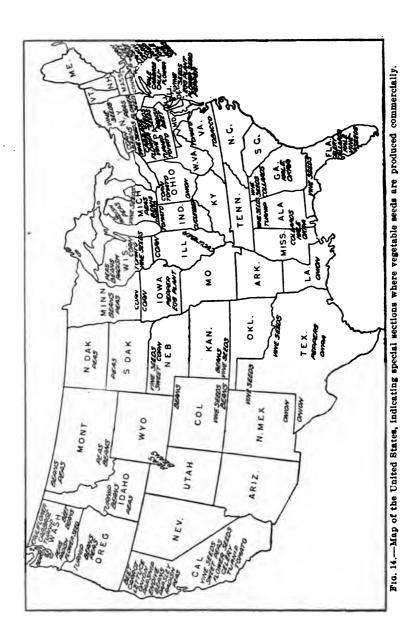
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ably because these crops are more susceptible to improvement than the common field crops and the margin of profit in handling seed of them has made their improvement economically possible. Seedsmen have done much in establishing improved varieties or strains of our common farm crops, but with the advent of modern technical plant breeders attached to Government and State institutions, this has been left very largely to them, which is as it should be. The cost incident to the development of improved strains of such crops is relatively so great that individual seedsmen are scarcely warranted in undertaking the work, since immediately their improved strains are released to the public these seedsmen have a very slight, if any, advantage over competitors in their sale. With improved varieties of vegetables, the case is somewhat different. Seedsmen can control the stock seed supply of these for a sufficiently long period to establish a special trade and consequently gain a very considerable financial advantage. It has come very generally to be recognized that it is the proper function of the Federal Department of Agriculture and the State agricultural experiment stations to bear the great burden of plant breeding.

PURE-SEED LAWS.

Of the 48 States, 27 now have seed-control laws, more or less satisfactorily and efficiently administered. These laws aim primarily to prevent misbranding and the sale of adulterated and poorly viable seed; likewise to prevent the sale of seed containing noxious weed seeds or a high percentage of any weed seeds. There is no national pure-seed law, but authority is given the Secretary of Agriculture to investigate and publish the names of dealers selling misbranded or adulterated seeds of grasses, clover, or alfalfa. In 1912 Congress passed the Seed-Importation Act, which was intended "to regulate foreign commerce by prohibiting the admission into the United States of certain adulterated grains and seeds unfit for seeding purposes." This law has corrected many of the bad practices engaged in by importers. It is a very helpful piece of legislation.

In May, 1917, the Secretary of Agriculture requested the seedsmen of the country to supply certain important information with all packages of field seeds weighing 10 pounds



or more. This they assented to, and after conference with representatives of the Department of Agriculture, they agreed to label their packages with: (1) Name of seedsman, (2) kind of seed, (3) proportion of pure live seed present, with month and year of germination test, and (4) country or locality of origin in the case of the following imported seeds: Beans, soy beans, Turkestan alfalfa, and red clover from southern Europe and Chile.

This was a long step in the right direction, and seedsmen are to be commended for the attitude they have taken toward it, but the education of the American farmer to know and appreciate the value of good seed will accomplish more in improving the quality of commercial seed than the best of seed laws. He will then demand a higher quality of seed when purchasing and will use more intelligent methods in growing, harvesting, storing, and cleaning the stocks he produces for his own use.

SEED GROWING SPECIALIZED IN CERTAIN SECTIONS.

Very largely for the same reasons that we, as a nation, in normal times draw upon other countries for our seed supply, we have encouraged the development of more or less specialized commercial seed-growing sections in this country. However, the reasons have not quite the same relative importance.

A glance at the accompanying maps (figs. 13 and 14) shows some of the important commercial seed-growing sections of the United States. California, it will be noted, is pre-eminently a State of vegetable-seed production, and only in scattered sections west of the hundredth meridian is alfalfa seed produced on a commercial scale. Climate in both cases is largely accountable. The maps show also where other seeds are grown commercially. The reasons why they are produced in their respective sections will be discussed briefly in certain cases. It may be stated, however, that so far as natural conditions are concerned, the possibilities of commercial seed growing in the United States have been only slightly developed and that when the economics of the case warrant, the industry in its many features will find ample room for expansion.

While climate and soil have had much to do with determining commercial seed-growing sections, custom and economic

factors have combined to determine market centers. For example, Toledo has long enjoyed the distinction of being the market center for clover seed. Custom, probably more than all other factors together, is responsible for this distinction. Other, although probably less striking, examples of market centers might be cited.

CEREAL SEEDS.

For almost obvious reasons, the farmer to a very large degree is his own seedsman so far as his supply of cereal seeds is concerned; in fact, the percentage of seed of this great group of crops that is handled by any part of the seed-trade machinery is very small indeed. Cereal crops are grown primarily for their seed, and it is relatively an easy matter for each farmer to reserve a small portion of his harvest for future sowing.

WHEAT.

The most important of all bread grains is wheat, yet it is the least important from a seedsman's standpoint. With the exception of a very small quantity imported from Canada, the seed supply is produced at home. It is estimated that 72,082,000 bushels of seed wheat were required to sow the 52,785,000 acres for the 1917 harvest. This estimate is based on the average of 1.37 bushels of seed per acre. In the winter of 1916-17, an unusually heavy killing of winter wheat occurred, resulting in a large reduction and even a total loss of acreage in many important wheat-growing sections. This condition was followed by severe drought over a vast area of the Great Plains spring-wheat belt, which destroved much of the crop in many places. These conditions, coming as they did when maximum production was essential to the Nation and to those across the sea dependent upon us for food, combined to make the seed-wheat problem for the 1918 harvest probably more serious than it has ever been in the history of the country.

Appreciating the necessity of securing the sowing of a large acreage of winter wheat in the fall of 1917, the Secretary of Agriculture urged the various States in which this crop is grown to increase their acreages in accordance with a

maturely considered program of production. On the outskirts of the winter-wheat area this involved the sowing of wheat by farmers who had never sown it before, and it meant seeding in as large a measure as possible in the sections that had just previously sustained severe loss by winterkilling. When it came to seeding the large acreage recommended by the department, it was found that the question of seed in the winterkilled area and the outer zones was of vital importance. Under these abnormal conditions the commercial agencies played a larger part in furnishing seed wheat than ever before. Recognized seedsmen, grain dealers, and other commercial agencies were called upon to assist to the fullest extent possible. Although a very large acreage was sown in the fall of 1917, it fell short of the mark set by the department's program. This was especially true in the sections where the previous sowings were winterkilled and in those where wheat was comparatively a new crop. Difficulty in getting seed, and also the high price at which seed was held, played a large part in the failure to sow the desired acreage.

In the drought-stricken portions of the spring-wheat belt special efforts have been made to insure an adequate supply of seed wheat for sowing in the spring of 1918. Grain dealers were enlisted in this campaign, and a three-sided cooperation was established between the United States Food Administration Grain Corporation, the Department of Agriculture, and the elevator and warehouse men, which resulted in the inspection and storage of seed wheat in local elevators and warehouses in sufficient quantities to supply the farmers whose previous crops had failed. The Grain Corporation permitted the holding of wheat that the Department, upon inspection, found to be suitable for seed, but specified that the price at which it could be sold should not be more than 15 per cent in excess of the purchase price, based on the Food Administration's price for No. 1 Northern wheat. The plan had the advantage, so far as the farmer was concerned, of making available a supply of inspected seed at a fair price. Certainly not in recent years has the seed wheat supply of the Nation received so much attention. Fortunately, varieties of wheat in the main have a rather wide range of adaptation, which permits dealers with comparatively little experience to handle them in a fairly satisfactory manner.

RYE.

As a bread grain, rye is practically interchangeable with wheat, especially so far as the European demand is concerned. It is estimated that it required 4,367,000 bushels of seed rye to sow the 3,096,000 acres put out for the 1917 grain harvest. This was based on the average seeding rate of 1.41 bushels per acre. A smaller percentage of the rye sown is harvested for grain than of wheat, much of it being grown for forage and green manuring; therefore it is a relatively more important item of the seedman's trade.

In the program of production formulated by the Secretary of Agriculture rye was considered in conjunction with wheat, and the sowing of an increased acreage over the 1916 seeding was advocated. It developed that the lack of seed rye in the Eastern, Southern, and Pacific Northwestern States was a material handicap to attaining the desired acreage. In these States seedsmen and grain dealers were called upon to a greater extent than is customary to furnish farmers with seed, but the supply of seed of adapted varieties was not sufficient, or at least not sufficiently available, to meet the demands; consequently the acreage fell short of expectations in these States. In the other rye-producing States, generally speaking, the supply was adequate and with some to spare, so that for the country as a whole a very large acreage was seeded.

The rye grown in this country is mostly winter rye, and practically no seed of it is imported. Its varieties and strains are not as wide in their range of adaptation as those of wheat; therefore more care is required in the commercial handling of the seed.

BARLEY.

Only in North Dakota, Minnesota, California, South Dakota, and Wisconsin can barley be called an important grain crop. These five States contain more than five-sevenths of the total area of barley in the United States. At the average rate of seeding of 1.80 bushels per acre, it required

13,819,000 bushels of seed to sow the 7,647,000 acres for the 1917 harvest of grain. Although of considerable importance as a hay crop, the farmers utilizing barley for this purpose also harvest a part of their crops for grain; consequently they provide to a very large extent their own seed supply. Improved varieties of barley have been developed and introduced in this country within recent years, and seedsmen have assisted materially in their dissemination.

OATS.

The acreage of oats sown in this country annually is very large, and more bushels, although fewer pounds, of seed are required to sow it than to sow our entire wheat acreage. For the 1917 harvest of grain, it is estimated that 41,539,000 acres of oats were sown, which, at the average rate of seeding of 2.33 bushels per acre, required 96,641,000 bushels of seed. In the spring-oats belt proper very little seed oats is handled by seedsmen or grain dealers, but in the South, where the winter-oats acreage is rapidly being extended, commercial agencies do quite a volume of business in seed. This was especially true of the fall planting of 1917, which followed a season of severe winterkilling and the consequent heavy loss of acreage. Many sections lost their winter-oats crop almost completely, which necessitated the bringing of seed from localities where adapted varieties could be had.

At least 85 per cent of the oats grown in this country is of the spring varieties, and all but an insignificant proportion of the seed is home grown. Rarely, if ever, does the oat crop present a really serious seed problem so far as available supplies are concerned.

RICE.

The Southern States and California comprise the rice-growing areas of this country. Rice is grown solely as a grain crop, and largely because of this the seed trade proper handles but a small proportion of the seed that is used. Approximately 870,000 acres of rice were sown in 1916, which, at the average seeding rate of 80 pounds per acre, required about 1,546,000 bushels of seed. There is, of course, good seed and poor seed of rice, but no serious problem is in-

volved so far as the adequacy of the supply is concerned. Practically no seed rice is imported, and when the farmer does not have enough for his own needs he has no difficulty in filling his requirement from the mills or warehouses.

BUCKWHEAT.

There are only five States that normally sow more than 20,000 acres of buckwheat for grain, and the total area sown for this purpose in the United States in 1916 was only 845,-000 acres. Of this acreage, more than 60 per cent was in New York and Pennsylvania. In 1917 the area sown for grain was estimated at 1,000,000 acres, which required approximately 1,000,000 bushels of seed, since the average rate of sowing is one bushel per acre. Inasmuch as buckwheat is grown as a green-manure crop, as well as for grain, a fair proportion of the seed is handled by the seed trade, much larger, in fact, than is the case with the other cereals. The trade is called upon especially to supply farmers outside of New York and Pennsylvania. There is a good demand for buckwheat for milling purposes. Buckwheat flour is a minor, but desirable, article of human diet. There is also a good export demand for the grain, especially from Holland and Scandinavian countries. Buckwheat hulls are used extensively as a packing for Dutch bulbs. Occasionally these demands for buckwheat threaten the American farmers' seed supply. Such was the case in the spring of 1917, when it became necessary to check exports to Europe and to urge millers to release a considerable quantity from their stocks for seeding purposes.

CORN.

Although ranking below wheat as a breadstuff, corn stands alone as a cereal from the standpoint of money value and size of crop. More attention is given to the seed of this crop than to that of any other. It represents the only case where annual seed selection is the rule and not the exception. In 1917 approximately 121,045,000 acres of corn were planted in the United States, for which nearly 20,000,000 bushels of seed were required. Some form of selection, although in a majority of cases not a very rigid one, was practiced with

nearly every bushel of this seed, and the selection was made, for the most part, by the farmer himself.

In the aggregate much seed corn is handled by seedsmen, but in proportion to the entire quantity used the total is very small. In the northernmost part of the corn belt, where the crop matures with a considerable degree of uncertainty and where a rather large proportion of that grown is utilized for silage, seedsmen are called upon to supply a relatively large quantity of seed; but in the corn belt proper the farmers select and cure or get from their neighbors most of the seed required for their own crops.

To select, store, and test seed corn properly requires a considerable degree of skill, and effort in this direction is well expended, as the ratio of the cost of seed per acre to the value of the crop is very small. This fact has made it possible to develop a few large commercial seed-corn concerns in the very heart of the corn belt. These concerns are examples of what can be accomplished in this enterprise. One thing that has militated against the handling of seed corn by seedsmen is the fact that varieties or strains are decidedly local in their adaptation. The farmer, in his endeavor to get highyielding strains of corn, has selected large ears for seed. Large ears are generally correlated with lateness of maturity, and therefore he has, for the most part unconsciously, developed late-maturing strains. This fact doubtless contributed to the gravity of the seed-corn situation caused by the early freezes and subsequent unfavorable curing weather in the fall of 1917, making the condition of the seed supply for the 1918 crop very serious. The new crop was badly damaged by frost, and the carry-over of old corn was very small. In situations of this kind, the efforts of every seed-saving agency are necessary to provide the required supply. At the time of writing the effect on the 1918 acreage of the serious seed-corn situation can not be fully estimated.

FORAGE-CROP SEEDS.

In the very nature of things, hay, fodder, and pasture crops, broadly speaking, are not seed crops. With very few exceptions they are utilized before they are mature, and in the cases where they are harvested after the maturity of their seed they are usually fed in their entirety to live stock. Seed of forage crops, therefore, is not locally produced to anything like the extent of that of cereals. In a very large measure seed of forage crops could be grown on the farms where needed, and in some cases very profitably, but in the case of certain important crops seed can be produced only in restricted areas and under suitable climatic and soil conditions. Alfalfa is a good example of this. The crop is now grown quite abundantly east of the hundredth meridian, but only in very limited areas in the humid region does seed set in quantity sufficient to make its harvesting a commercial possibility. The saving of seed of forage crops must be, for the most part, a definite and not an incidental feature of farm work, which is also a reason why the seed trade is called upon to handle much of the nation's supply.

GRASS SEEDS.

Tame hay and pasture grasses are grown practically on every general farm where soil and climate permit. Grass crops are considered almost indispensable to a permanent system of agriculture, and on most of the farms which grow them some seed is sown each year. With few exceptions these grasses are good seed producers, setting seed abundantly under a wide range of conditions, but notwithstanding this, the commercial production of their seed, to a considerable degree, has been localized. Soil and climate have been important factors, but custom, regardless of economic conditions, likewise has been instrumental in determining the localities.

TIMOTHY.

No recent statistics are available on the acreage of timothy, America's greatest cultivated hay grass, but those of 1909 indicate that there were at that time nearly 15,000,000 acres of this grass grown alone and nearly 20,000,000 acres of it grown in mixtures with clovers. It is therefore reasonable to assume that over 200,000,000 pounds of timothy seed are sown annually by our farmers. In almost all parts of the region generally outlined as east of the ninety-sixth meridian and north of Tennessee, it seeds abundantly in

average seasons, but as the map (fig. 13) indicates, the commercial production of seed in the main is fairly well localized. More thmothy seed is grown in this country than is needed for our own seedings. Our exports for the fiscal year 1916 were approximately 13,500,000 pounds, and the quantity of seed harvested annually is limited only by economic factors.

The production of timothy seed bears such a peculiar relation to the price of timothy hay that the supply does not adjust itself quickly to the demands. This is responsible many times for the wide fluctuations in the price of seed. When the price of hay is high, there is a strong tendency to harvest more of the crop for hav and less for seed. This, coupled with the tendency to increase the acreage in the succeeding season materially advances the price of seed. Timothy seed is harvested and thrashed by ordinary farm machinery. In some sections, notably in Iowa, where commercial seed production is well developed, special methods of harvesting are practiced, as, for example, heading, which has many advantages. This method permits the harvesting of a fair crop of hay after the seed crop has been removed (Pl. LXXIV, fig. 1). No varieties of timothy have as yet been commercialized, although there are very good prospects that some will be in the near future. While of great importance to American agriculture, there is no cause for fear regarding the adequacy of our supply of timothy seed.

REDTOP.

Although it does not compare with timothy in importance, redtop is, nevertheless, a very valuable hay and pasture grass. It is especially valuable on wet and so-called sour soils. The redtop and alsike-clover mixture is a popular one, and the redtop-clover-timothy mixture is also extensively used, especially in the Northeast. Redtop is a common constituent of lawn and turf grass mixtures, and the quantity sown for all purposes in this country is very large. Probably 95 per cent of commercial redtop seed is produced in Wayne, Edward, Richland, Marion, and Jefferson Counties in south-central Illinois. In these counties it is a staple money crop which requires no special farm machinery to harvest or special skill

to produce. Some years ago seed in the chaff was sold by the seed trade, but of late years the market demand is for fancy or recleaned seed. Redtop has been used extensively as an adulterant of the seed of the fine bent-grasses, to which it is closely related, but with perfected methods of identification this practice must soon come to an end. The country's supply of redtop seed may be said to be sufficient.

KENTUCKY AND CANADA BLUEGRASSES.

The commercial production of Kentucky bluegrass seed is confined principally to a few counties in Kentucky, Missouri, and Iowa, the most important section being in Kentucky surrounding Winchester, Paris, and Lexington. Limestone soils are largely responsible for defining these sections, as it is only upon such soil that this grass yields a profitable crop of seed. There are several places in the East where Kentucky bluegrass produces seed abundantly, but where it is not harvested commercially. The peculiar nature of the seed makes necessary its harvesting, curing, and thrashing by special methods and equipment. This and custom have had much to do with limiting and localizing commercial seed production. When the seed is mature, it is harvested by horse-drawn seed strippers and piled in long windrows for curing (Pl. LXXIV, fig. 2). When thoroughly dry, it is thrashed by a specially constructed machine having a cylinder which revolves in a close-fitting sleeve. Improper curing is responsible for the low vitality of much of the seed that is on the market. If stored as it should be, seed that is a year old will germinate better than new seed. We export considerable quantities of seed annually.

In the past, seed of Canada bluegrass was used extensively to adulterate Kentucky bluegrass seed, but this practice has largely been discontinued. A considerable quantity of seed of Canada bluegrass is used in this country every year, and practically all of it comes from southern Ontario. The character which makes special machinery necessary for the harvesting of Kentucky bluegrass seed is absent in the case of Canada bluegrass; therefore the ordinary mower, rake, and thrasher are used satisfactorily. The demand for the seed of this grass falls short of the possible supply.

ORCHARD GRASS.

Kentucky, Indiana, Ohio, Virginia, West Virginia, and Tennessee supply the greater part of the orchard-grass seed used in the United States. Jefferson, Oldham, and Shelby Counties in Kentucky and Clark and adjoining counties in Indiana are the most important commercial seed sections No difficulties attend the harvesting of orchard-grass seed, and no particular experience is required to handle it on the farm. In past years, rather large quantities of seed were imported from New Zealand, but the strain of orchard grass grown in that country is inferior to our own, and imported seed is discriminated against on our markets.

OTHER GRASSES.

At one time the commercial production of meadow-fescue seed was quite an important industry in eastern Kansas and western Missouri, but in recent years it has declined perceptibly, owing largely to the falling off of home demands. Considerable quantities are still grown, but mostly for export to Europe, where it is used as a constituent of pasture and meadow mixtures. Meadow fescue can scarcely be said to be a very important grass in this country.

Almost all the seed of Italian and perennial rye-grass used by us is imported from Europe. At present, however, seed of a variety of Italian rye-grass is imported in liberal quantities from Argentina. Our normal requirements of both species aggregate about 2,500,000 pounds of seed. These grasses are used in meadow and pasture mixtures and also in turf-grass mixtures. While valuable grasses, no concern is occasioned by the fact that we do not produce our own seed supply.

In mixtures which include orchard grass, tall meadow oatgrass is used principally in the Piedmont sections of the Southern States. Seed of it is grown mostly in Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee, but as a commercial commodity it is relatively unimportant.

A few years ago, brome-grass (*Bromus inermis*) promised to be a valuable hay and pasture grass in the Northern States, especially in the Great Plains region and the Pacific North-

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west. It has fallen so far short of expectations that at the present time it is only of very minor importance. Some seed is produced in the Dakotas and Minnesota, but most of our supply is imported now, principally from Canada, since European seed is not readily available.

In proportion to the importance of Bermuda grass, there is little seed used in this country. The grass propagates itself so readily by stolons and rootstocks that vegetative propagation in most cases is more economical than seeding. In the Southern States, where it is so abundant, Bermudagrass seed is not produced commercially. Prior to a very few years ago, our seed supply was secured from Australia, but now it is produced at home, chiefly in southwestern Arizona. In the Southwest, Bermuda grass sets seed abundantly, and the quality is superior to that of the commercial Australiangrown seed. By developing our own source of supply we not only obtain better seed, but also cheaper seed.

Rhodes grass, another southern grass, is increasing slowly in importance. It is limited in its area by its inability to withstand low temperatures. This confines it as a perennial principally to Florida and the immediate Gulf coast region. There is a fair demand for seed of this species, but none is produced commercially here. Our supply comes almost exclusively from Australia.

Natal grass is a warm-climate hay grass which as yet is of limited importance here. It has proved promising in Florida, and the commercial seed supply is practically all produced there.

SORGHUMS.

It has often been said that the sorghums are the backbone of the dry-land agriculture in the southern half of the Great Plains region. This is especially true of the grain sorghums, although the sweet sorghums and Sudan grass contribute no small amount to the cultivated forage supply in that region.

Kafir, feterita, and mile are the most important grain sorghums, and the leading States in their production are Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas. On account of the relatively long season required for their maturity, the grain-sorghum area does not extend much north of southern Nebraska, although the kaoliangs, a less important group, are attracting consider-

able attention in South Dakota. Generally speaking, milo is the popular variety of grain sorghum in northwestern Kansas, western Oklahoma, and the Panhandle of Texas, because it matures more quickly than kafir and can be grown at higher altitudes. The Dwarf variety is the one most commonly used. The kafirs are largely grown in central Kansas and Oklahoma. Of the three common varieties, Blackhull, Red, and Pink, the first mentioned is the most popular, and the dwarf strain of it is rapidly coming into use. Feterita is a relatively short-seasoned grain sorghum, and will produce a crop with less moisture than kafir or milo, but is not as productive in normal seasons.

Only about 3 pounds of good seed of the grain sorghums are required to plant an acre, but since much of the seed used is of low vitality the optimum rate is more nearly 5 pounds. On this basis approximately 25,000,000 pounds, or 450,000 bushels, of seed are necessary to plant our annual acreage. The seed is easily harvested (Pl. LXXV, fig. 1), but seedsmen and grain dealers are called upon to supply a fairly large part of the seed needed, as much of the crop is fed, without thrashing, to live stock on the farm. Ordinarily the supply of seed is adequate for the country's needs, the only problem being to get it free from mixtures and to store it in such a way that it will not heat.

In the spring of 1917 the demand for the seed of grain sorghums for feed and for the making of alcohol and yeast threatened to curtail the supply for planting purposes, but a little attention to the conservation and distribution of the available seed resulted in supplying enough for planting a very large acreage. In the summer of 1917 serious droughts covered a large area in Texas and also affected parts of Oklahoma and Kansas. These, together with early frosts, greatly reduced the total yield of good seed. As a result, care to prevent too much of it from being fed and precaution in storing that needed for planting in 1918 were necessary.

Sweet sorghums are grown principally in the Southwestern States, in the central and southern Great Plains, and to a limited extent in the upper Mississippi Valley. The acreage of the crop can not be definitely stated, but in the aggregate it is very large. Since the seed of sweet sorghums is not used to any extent for feed or for industrial purposes, rarely more than enough for planting is harvested. This is particularly true of some of the better sirup varieties. The demand for sugar substitutes suggests that efforts should be made to conserve the seed supply, which it is believed will be enough, if properly distributed, for planting a considerably increased acreage.

The rapidity with which Sudan grass attained a place among the staple forage crops of this country is little less than phenomenal. This grass is now grown extensively in the South and the southern half of the Great Plains. On account of its close resemblance to Johnson grass, a near relative, it was feared that prejudice would militate against its use. To overcome the danger of disseminating Johnsongrass seed by means of Sudan-grass seed, the growing of the latter north of the Johnson-grass territory was recommended, but the trouble was soon overcome; in reality, it failed to materialize to anything like the extent anticipated. lev in southeastern Colorado. Speculation in Sudan-grass seed in the North has never been extensively practiced. The bulk of commercial Sudan-grass seed comes from northern Texas, Oklahoma, southern Kansas, and the Arkansas Vallev in southeastern Colorado. Speculation in Sudan-grass seed, coupled with the fact that the crop is still a very new one, has prevented the seed supply from attaining a proper equilibrium. Just now, it does not seem to be quite sufficient for the demand. About the time that Sudan grass was introduced, the demand for Johnson-grass seed was increasing quite rapidly, but when the former got well established, the demand for the latter diminished rather than developed.

MILLETS.

The foxtail millets are the only important ones in the United States. They are widely grown, but can scarcely be said to be popular crops. The area devoted to millets in 1909 was approximately 1,200,000 acres, and there has been very little increase since that time. Our annual seed requirements are probably not more than 25,000,000 pounds, all of which is home grown. Large quantities of seed are imported from the Orient, but they are mostly used in poultry and other feeds. Kansas, Missouri, Texas, Nebraska, North Dakota, Tennessee, and Oklahoma produce most of our seed of

the common, German, and Hungarian varieties. Seed of the Siberian variety and the Kursk, an improved strain selected from it, are grown in the northern part of the Great Plains region. At this time the supply of seed of the common, Siberian, and Kursk millets is not abundant.

LEGUME SEED SUPPLY HIGHLY IMPORTANT.

Nearly every system of permanent agriculture has one or more leguminous crops in its foundation. Not all include legumes to the extent that red clover is included in the cropping systems of our Northern States, but some legumes find their way, sooner or later, to a majority of our American farms. Legume seeds, as a class, are the highest priced forage-crop seeds, since many of them are in demand as feeds, while those that are not are relatively costly to produce.

A rather large part of the value of some legumes is derived incidentally from their effect on subsequent crops. Clovers might be cited as good examples of this, and we are now obtaining a measure of what the farmer thinks such legumes are worth for their soil-improving qualities under the present scale of values by the constant increase in the price of seed. For example, as the price of crimson-clover seed approached 18 cents per pound in the summer of 1917, farmers began to drop out of the market. When it reached 20 cents per pound, sales fell off materially, and at 22 cents per pound only a relatively small quantity of seed was sold. Red clover is now being put to the same test. Some of the most important legume seeds can be produced commercially only in restricted areas. In the main, it may be said that a large part of the supply is handled by some branch of the seed trade.

RED CLOVER.

An immense quantity of red-clover seed, including the Mammoth variety, is sown annually in this country, probably at least 120,000,000 pounds, not all of which is produced at home. From July 1, 1915, to June 30, 1916, 32,508,537 pounds of red-clover seed were imported, but for the corresponding period a year later, only 5,343,600 pounds came from foreign sources. We export, as well as import, red-clover seed. In the summer of 1917 England con-

tracted heavily for seed here, because the crop prospects there were not good. France, which normally supplies us some seed, likewise placed contracts in this country. This extra demand on our own none too heavy crop, coming at a time when the Russian supply was not available to us, produced a wholesale price of \$19.80 per bushel for red-clover seed in January, 1918. The important foreign supplies of seed that are available in normal times are those of Chile, Russia, Italy, and France. Seed from Chile usually contains seed of a noxious species of dodder and is therefore undesirable. The Italian-grown seed produces plants that lack hardiness in our red-clover area. Russian and French red-clover seed are both desirable.

Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Idaho produce the bulk of our red-clover seed, and Toledo is considered the center of our red-clover seed market. It is practically the only city in the United States where futures in this commodity are dealt in.

The only special machinery needed in the producing of red-clover seed is a huller, which, in fact, is a thrasher with a modified cylinder and concaves. Some apprehension is felt as to our supply of seed for the 1918 seeding and also regarding the effect of the high price of seed on the acreage sown, and this apprehension would seem to be well founded.

ALSIKE CLOVER.

In many places where red clover can not be grown successfully, alsike clover has been found to succeed admirably. Particularly is this true on wet and sour soils. Its seed, therefore, is usually in good demand. In 1909 over 6,500,000 pounds of alsike-clover seed were required in this country for seeding purposes, and the crop has increased materially in its area since then. From July 1, 1915, to June 30, 1916, 1,113,464 pounds of seed were imported, chiefly from Canada. This was increased to 4,329,000 pounds a year later, but from July 1 to November 30, 1917, only 811,200 pounds were permitted entry. That is practically one-half the quantity entered for the corresponding period of the previous year. Most of our home-grown alsike-clover seed comes from Indiana, Michigan, New York, Wisconsin, and Idaho. It is

handled in much the same way as red-clover seed (Pl. LXXV, fig. 2), and the price keeps rather a close second with it, the price of alsike-clover seed in December, 1917, being \$15 per bushel. While alsike clover can be substituted for red clover in many places, the supply of seed for 1918 is not large enough to afford much relief in connection with the red-clover seed shortage.

OTHER CLOVERS.

As a winter-growing annual soil-improving crop, crimson clover holds high rank along the Atlantic coast from New York to Florida. Its area, however, does not extend far back from the coast. In 1909 it was estimated that there were sown in this country annually nearly 11,000,000 pounds of seed of this species. Since that time, and even prior to the present war, our seed requirements have increased greatly.

A considerable quantity of crimson-clover seed is grown in Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina, but it has been found necessary to import from Europe a relatively large percentage of what is needed. For the fiscal year 1916 our imports were 4,505,893 pounds, and for the fiscal year 1917 they were 5,776,300 pounds. France furnished us with most of our imported seed. The crop of 1917 in that country was scarcely more than enough for home demands, so recent imports from France have fallen off heavily. The high price of seed in Europe and the cost of laying it down in this country have caused very high prices here; so high, in fact, that farmers are seeking other means of maintaining their soil fertility.

Crimson-clover seed is best harvested with a stripper, similar to the type used for harvesting Kentucky-bluegrass seed. Most of the home-grown seed that finds its way into the trade is thrashed with a huller, but much of that gathered by farmers for their own use and for the use of their neighbors is not thrashed, but sown in the chaff.

In every bluegrass pasture white clover is a more or less important grazing plant. It is also found abundantly in bluegrass lawns and turf areas, but compared with its extensive use little seed is required annually. It is probable that not more than 1,000,000 pounds of white-clover seed are

sown each year, and of this quantity approximately 150,000 pounds are imported from Canada. The States that produce most of our white-clover seed are Wisconsin, Idaho, and Louisiana. Louisiana is an important, but relatively recent, source of supply. Seed coming from the Northern States is obtained largely as a by-product from the harvesting of other seeds.

The bur clovers are used principally as cover crops. The areas where they are grown in this country are California and the Southern States. The common species used in the South is known as southern bur clover (Medicago arabica). For the cotton belt it is superior to the common California bur clover (Medicago denticulata). It is estimated that 2,500,000 pounds of bur clover, both hulled and in the bur, were sown in this country in 1909, but appreciably more seed is now required. North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi produce most of the bur-clover seed for the South, and a large percentage is sown without hulling. It is harvested mostly in a crude manner by raking or sweeping the fields after the plants are fully matured. By this method much trash is collected with the burs. California-grown bur-clover seed is put on the market hulled. Practically no seed of bur clover is now imported.

Louisiana and Mississippi furnish most of our commercial lespedeza, or Japan clover, seed. Baton Rouge is the center of production in Louisiana, and the Delta region of Mississippi is the principal seed-producing section of that State. Other sections of the South could produce this seed, as the plants set seed abundantly in the region to which lespedeza is adapted. This crop has increased much in popularity since the census of 1910, at which time it was estimated that only 4,000,000 pounds of seed were sown annually. Harvesting seed can best be done by means of a mowing machine fitted with a pan to catch the seed as it shatters from the plant.

MELILOTUS, OR SWEET CLOVER.

There are two species of Melilotus, or sweet clover, that are becoming important as cultivated crops in this country, namely, the white species and the biennial yellow species. The former is the more popular and valuable, except pos-

sibly at high altitudes in the North and in the extreme South. The rapid increase in the use of white sweet clover as a hay and pasture plant has created a strong demand for the seed. Most of the commercial seed of this species comes from Nebraska, Montana, Wyoming, and Illinois. This plant has a very wide range of adaptation and produces seed abundantly wherever it is found. The same may be said of the biennial yellow species. No data are available on the quantity of seed harvested and sown annually in this country, but it is now quite large. The harvesting of sweet-clover seed is best done by means of a grain binder having a pan attachment to catch the seed that shatters when the crop is cut. Other methods are used, but they involve considerable waste. The ordinary grain thrasher, slightly modified and properly adjusted, is more commonly and successfully used than the clover huller for thrashing the seed. By the proper use of this machine, a very large percentage of the seed can be hulled when thrashed. Both hulled and unhulled seed appear on the market. The possibilities of the production in this country of seed of both the white and the biennial vellow sweet clover are very great.

ALFALFA.

In alfalfa we have a high-yielding hay crop and a lowyielding seed crop, affecting favorably on one hand the demand for seed and unfavorably, on the other, the supply of it. It is very difficult to estimate the annual seed requirement, yet it doubtless exceeds 25,000,000 pounds. Alfalfaseed production is very uncertain in this country and is commercially localized in fairly definite sections west of the one hundredth meridian. Utah, Idaho, Kansas, Nebraska, California, and Arizona produce the bulk of our domestic-grown seed. The seed of the Grimm variety and other hardy strains comes mostly from the Dakotas, Montana, and Idaho. Arizona and California supply seed of the Peruvian variety, while common alfalfa seed is grown in all of the seed-producing sections. Harvesting is done without the aid of special machinery, but the yield of seed is so unreliable that relatively few farmers engage in its production. For the fiscal years 1916 and 1917 the importations of alfalfa averaged more than 3,000,000 pounds. Most of this seed came from Turkestan, by way of Vladivostok. Prior to the war, Turkestan alfalfa seed came in through Germany, where it was assembled largely in the markets of Hamburg and Darmstadt. Commercial seed of Turkestan alfalfa is very inferior to domestic-grown seed, from the standpoint of the crop it produces, and it is unfortunate that our seedsmen will persist in handling this strain. Vigorous campaigns have been waged against it, which have resulted in cutting our imports nearly in half, and it is hoped that they will be even more reduced in the future. Our 1917 seed crop was about normal, and it is believed that the 1918 seed requirement will be fairly well met.

VETCH.

Unfortunately the difficulty of growing hairy-vetch seed in this country and the high price at which it reaches the farmer have seriously handicapped the extension of this crop. Most of our seed comes from Russia, although some is produced in Michigan, Ohio, and other Northern and Eastern States. In the fiscal year 1917, 295,600 pounds of seed were imported, but the retail price, which was approximately 25 cents per pound, was so high that farmers were reluctant to buy and sow it. Unless the price lowers, the supply will exceed the demand.

The Willamette Valley, in Oregon, produces most of our supply of spring-vetch seed. Very little is imported, not more than 50,000 pounds annually. This species is not as valuable as hairy vetch in the eastern part of the United States, and while the price of seed is much lower, the demand for it is not great.

Narrow-leaved vetch (Vicia angustifolia) has been recognized as a valuable plant in the South, but the seed has not been commercially available until very recently. This year considerable quantities have been placed on the market at less than half the price of hairy-vetch seed, having been produced in Minnesota as a by-product of wheat cleaning. It is believed that this species will fill an important place among the green-manure and forage crops of the eastern United States.

CANADA FIELD PEAS.

Only four States, Michigan, Wisconsin, Idaho, and Washington, are important in the commercial production of fieldpea seed, and the total area devoted to peas for grain is not more than 250,000 acres. Some seed peas are imported annually from Canada, and at present some peas suitable for seed are being exported to Europe. The estimated requirements for seeding purposes are now 22,500,000 pounds, and, while a scarcity of seed of garden varieties exists, there is enough seed of the field varieties to meet all planting needs if it is properly conserved. The only danger of shortage lies in the fact that there is a demand abroad for all kinds of dried peas for food, which might result in exporting peas beyond the point of our own needs. Some dried peas are now being imported from the Orient, Mexico, and South America, and some are available in Australia, but the commercial foreign stocks are not desirable for seeding purposes.

COWPEAS.

Twenty-two States, mostly in the South, devote an estimated aggregate area of over 5,700,000 acres to cowpeas. Approximately 435,000,000 pounds of seed are required to plant this area. Although producing fair seed yields, cowpeas have never been popular as a grain crop, largely because of the difficulties of harvesting. No thoroughly satisfactory seed harvesters have been developed; therefore the bulk of the seed that is now on the market is hand picked. Thrashing requires care, but can be done by a slight modification of the ordinary grain thrasher. Our commercial cowpea seed comes from very well distributed sections in the Southern States. As there is no demand for the seed for feeding or for industrial purposes, little fear is entertained regarding the adequacy of our supply. With the growing popularity of the soy bean and the rapid strides of the velvet bean, cowpeas are somewhat eclipsed, and the extension of their acreage appears to be unlikely.

SOY BEANS.

There are no statistics upon which to estimate the rate of increase in soy-bean acreage in this country. Those for 1917

are the only figures available and indicate an aggregate of .460,000 acres, located in 17 States, which is probably double that of 1916. The present crop of soy beans is large, but, nevertheless, the seed supply needs careful guarding, first, because the oil mills are ready to crush the beans if the price does not exceed \$2 per bushel, and, second, because the canneries, provided they are able to get the cans, will take soy beans, as they did in the spring of 1917, if navy and other varieties of baking beans reach the price they commanded at that time. This is especially true of the yellow-seeded varieties, which comprise the greater part of the crop. The seed of early-maturing varieties was injured by early frosts in the fall of 1917; therefore good available stocks should be conserved at all costs.

Millions of tons of soy beans are waiting in Manchuria for export to this country, and our own seed supplies may be influenced indirectly by them. These oriental beans represent mixed and inferior varieties and are entirely unsuited for seed. They are also inferior to domestic-grown soy beans for food, but if they should come to this country in large quantities they would find a market at the oil mills, and this would tend to conserve our own beans for seed. If they are imported to the extent of breaking the market, a slackening in the demand for seed might result. It appears that we will need approximately 14,000,000 pounds of soybean seed to plant an acreage equal to that of last year.

Early frosts and freezes in the fall of 1917 greatly reduced the seed supply of the early-maturing varieties in the Northern States. Every possible effort should be made to conserve the seed that is now available and to encourage its planting in the spring of 1918.

VELVET BEANS.

The advent of early-maturing varieties of velvet beans has resulted in an almost phenomenal increase in the acreage of this crop in the southern United States. For the year 1917 it was estimated that there were more than 6,000,000 acres of velvet beans, mostly grown along with corn, in seven States in the cotton belt. It is safe to say that this is five times as great as the acreage of 1916. Alabama, Florida, and Georgia have five-sixths of the velvet-bean acreage of the

South and harvest as dried beans over 60 per cent of their crop. The velvet-bean meal industry has developed rapidly, and this furnishes a ready market for the beans, but there will be plenty saved for planting even a very much larger acreage than was planted in 1917, which required at least 93,000,000 pounds of seed.

PEANUTS.

An examination of all the available statistics indicates that the acreage of peanuts in 1917 was more than double that of 1916, the total area being more than 2,900,000 acres. A much larger percentage of the planted area was harvested for market this year than heretofore. There is a constantly increasing demand for peanuts as a food, and much of the harvested crop soon finds its way to the large shelled-peanut dealers. These dealers are very potent factors in the distribution of peanuts for seed, since they handle more seed than seedsmen. In the spring of 1917 large concerns agreed to set aside portions of their stocks of Spanish peanuts until after the close of the planting season, in order to insure enough seed for the large acreage that was planted. Such an arrangement could doubtless be made whenever there is any necessity for doing so. Upwards of 1,500,000 bushels of shelled peanuts were required for planting the 1917 acreage, and much more will be required for seed in 1918.

SEEDS OF FIBER CROPS.

There are but two important cultivated fiber crops, one major and one minor, grown here, and we produce our own seed supply of both. The seed of cotton, the major fiber crop, is a staple in more than one respect, while the seed of hemp, the minor crop, is harvested and used in this country only for planting purposes.

COTTON.

In some respects cotton seed is in a class with the cereal seeds, inasmuch as a relatively small percentage of it is used for planting. By far the greater part goes to the crushers, where the oil is extracted, and the residue is converted into feed and fertilizer. The total production of cotton seed in

1916 was estimated at 5,237,000 tons. Of this quantity, approximately 826,000 tons were required for planting purposes.

The difficulty of maintaining improved varieties of cotton in a pure condition, owing to the fact that they cross readily among themselves and the seed becomes mixed in the process of ginning, results in a large demand for good planting stocks. Such stocks almost invariably command a relatively high price. Individual farmers have done much in the way of producing and selling cotton seed suitable for planting. Seedsmen and ginners likewise are important factors in this connection. Rarely is there a serious situation in the supply of seed for planting. Select stocks are not always abundant, but seed of some kind can invariably be had. . The drought in the summer of 1917 damaged the cotton crop so badly in parts of Texas that steps were necessary to provide seed from outside sources for a large acreage, but no great difficulty was experienced in doing this, as the supply of seed of suitable varieties was reasonably abundant elsewhere.

The present enormous demand for long-staple cotton for the manufacture of automobile tires and other commodities requiring fabric of high tensile strength has created a problem in connection with the supply of seed of long-staple varieties. Every effort should be put forth to produce and conserve good seed of these varieties, since the demand for long-staple cotton will doubtless increase.

HEMP.

Although we have still only a small acreage devoted to hemp in the United States, the acreage has doubled each year for the last three years. The area planted in 1917 was estimated at 42,000 acres. Kentucky supplies practically all of the hemp seed sown in this country. It is grown in seed plats along the Kentucky River. China and Japan furnish us large quantities of hemp seed for poultry feed, but it is practically valueless for seeding purposes. This seed can not be distinguished from our own domestic seed, and since it is much cheaper, fraud is often perpetrated on the unsuspecting farmer. The sale of Kentucky-grown hemp seed is controlled by such a small number of dealers that a tendency

frequently develops toward the charging of exorbitant prices. Hemp must be specially planted for seed production, and in view of the increasing importance of the crop, seed production should be strongly encouraged. Chile offers possibilities in this connection, but for the present our efforts should be exerted at home. Our planting requirements, based on the acreage of 1917, are about 2,100,000 pounds of seed.

MISCELLANEOUS FIELD-CROP SEEDS.

Certain of our crops to which small acreages are devoted fill very important places among our industrial and dietary needs. It is quite essential that their acreages be maintained, if not materially increased, as time goes on. Some of these crops at times present real seed problems, and just now the country is confronted with solving one of these problems or suffering a reduction in the output of a very necessary food product.

SUGAR BEETS.

The effect of the war on the sugar-beet seed supply is now being seriously felt, although it has been very much in evidence since the outset. We have been dependent upon Europe almost exclusively for our sugar-beet seed since the beginning of our beet-sugar industry, and although we have engaged more or less seriously in beet-seed production investigations for many years, the war found us in the position of producing but a very small proportion of the seed needed to keep our factories in operation. It was generally thought that Germany and Russia could grow beet seed much more cheaply than it could be produced in this country. Therefore it was considered economy for our sugar companies to get seed from abroad. With Germany at war with us and Russia in an unsettled condition, we have been compelled to take definite steps to grow as large a part of our seed supply as possible. The history of our efforts to get sugar-beet seed out of Europe from 1914 until the present time is very interesting. Suffice it to say that we are still getting seed out of Russia by way of Vladivostok, but it is becoming increasingly difficult. Our seed requirements for 1918 are estimated at upwards of 220,000

bags, or 22,500,000 pounds. This will be used for planting approximately 800,000 acres and replanting a portion of this area.

The prospects for sugar-beet seed production in this country are now quite bright, and even the relatively small quantity of domestic-grown seed has been sufficient to relieve the situation materially. It is estimated that in 1917 we produced 50,000 bags of seed, mostly in Utah and Colorado. In 1918 we should produce very much more than this. We now have about 100 sugar factories, with 15 or more additional factories under construction. It takes at least 2,000 bags of seed to produce enough beets with which to operate a factory profitably, so that the seed requirements for 1918 will be much larger than for 1917. While Russia is now the only foreign source of supply and it has been a difficult task to get seed from that country, it is thought that few, if anv. of our sugar factories will be compelled to close for lack of seed in 1918. Sugar-beet seed is handled mostly through importing jobbers, and it is the policy of factories to accumulate a supply for two or more years in advance of their needs.

FLAX.

In the United States flax is primarily a seed crop. Between 28,000,000 and 30,000,000 bushels of flax seed are required annually by our linseed-oil industries, which constitute the greatest demand. This is about 100 per cent more than our average production for the last three years. We sow annually nearly 2,000,000 acres of flax, which require approximately 900,000 bushels of seed. Our flax area is confined principally to North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Minnesota, where much of the crop is grown upon new land. Exclusive of the United States, the important flaxseed-producing countries of the world are Argentina, Russia, India, and Canada.

The drought in the summer of 1917 badly damaged the flax crop in western North Dakota and Montana and thereby greatly reduced the country's total yield. The high price of flax seed at harvest time and the doubt on the part of the farmers as to the stability of high prices when seed from Argentina should appear upon our markets, together



FIG. 1.—HEADING TIMOTHY PERMITS THE HARVESTING OF A FAIR CROP OF HAY AFTER THE SEED CROP HAS BEEN REMOVED.



FIG. 2.—KENTUCKY BLUEGRASS SEED IS HARVESTED BY HORSE-DRAWN SEED STRIPPERS AND PILED IN LONG WINDROWS FOR CURING.



FIG. 1.—SEED OF GRAIN SORGHUMS IS EASILY HARVESTED BY ORDINARY FARM MACHINERY.



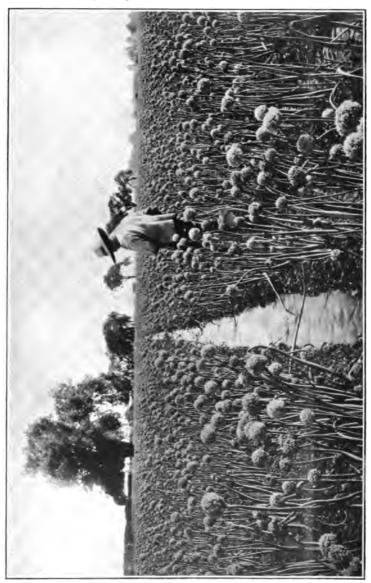
FIG. 2.—SEED OF ALSIKE CLOVER IS HARVESTED IN MUCH THE SAME WAY AS THAT OF RED CLOVER.



FIG. 1.—THE ACREAGE DEVOTED TO RADISH SEED IN THE UNITED STATES HAS BEEN INCREASED SUBSTANTIALLY SINCE 1914.



FIG. 2.—MOST OF OUR DOMESTIC SUPPLY OF TURNIP SEED IS PRODUCED IN THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST.



ONION SEED IS PRODUCED EXTENSIVELY IN THE UNITED STATES, AND ITS PRODUCTION CAN BE GREATLY INCREASED AS OUR NEEDS WARRANT.

with their need for cash, resulted in the sending of large quantities of seed to our primary markets. This movement so seriously threatened the seed supply, especially of North Dakota and Montana, that definite action was necessary to conserve seed to meet the demands for sowing the 1918 acreage. The new crop of flax seed from Argentina appears on our markets in February and March, but this seed is not suitable for sowing in the United States.

BROOM CORN.

As a piece of household equipment, the broom is indispensable, and the broom-corn broom is by far the most popular type in this country. In the aggregate, we devote about 300,000 acres annually to the production of broom corn. Most of the acreage is in Oklahoma, Illinois, Kansas, Colorado, and Texas. Nearly 1,000,000 pounds of seed are required to sow this acreage. The sections in which the crop is grown for the most part produce their own seed supply. Seed from humid sections is not suitable for the drier sections. Broom-corn seed should be specially grown, since that obtained from the brush harvested for broom making is mostly immature and of low vitality.

VEGETABLE SEEDS.

It was not until the vigorous campaign for increased food production in this country was well under way that general interest was manifested in the vegetable-seed situation. fact is that the supply of seed was affected immediately war was declared in Europe, but the reserve stocks prevented the effect of the war on the supply from at once becoming evident. Prior to the war it was our custom to import large quantities of seed of certain vegetables from various European countries. The war did not stop our importations immediately, not even from Germany, but it produced a condition which eventually not only shut off our supply, but made it practically necessary for us to export to Europe certain kinds of seed that we formerly imported from that continent. The successful production of vegetable seed requires special experience and training, as well as suitable climate, soil, and equipment, and therefore our industry, while it expanded

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greatly, could not meet the demands made upon it without showing evidence of strain. As the surplus stocks became absorbed and the seedsmen, large and small, were compelled more and more to depend upon growing-crop contracts for their annual supplies, the wholesale prices of most vegetable seeds increased rapidly, until at present they are unusually high. Since the retail prices normally bear no direct relation to the wholesale prices and in the past have not fluctuated with the latter, the price of seed in packets in 1918 will be watched with much interest.

California is our main dependence for the production of seed of the common vegetables, other than peas, beans, and sweet corn. It is true that other States produce vegetable seeds, but in none has the industry developed to the same extent as in California. In that State the climate and soil are generally favorable, and up to the present time relatively cheap Chinese, Japanese, and Hindoo labor has been available. The map (fig. 14) indicates in a general way the States in which the several vegetable seeds are grown.

Peas, beans, and corn are bulky seeds, and these have always been grown at home. New pea-producing areas are continually opening up in the Northwest, especially in irrigated districts. These new areas supersede old ones to a considerable degree, owing to the fact that they are less infested with the pea weevil. Garden and canning varieties of seed peas were contracted for heavily in 1917, both for home use and for export, but the crop was light and the supply of seed for 1918 is none too abundant. Estimates are not available on the acreage of garden peas, but it is probably somewhat less than the acreage of Canada field peas.

In 1917 this country put out the largest acreage of edible beans that it has ever planted, over 2,100,000 acres. Field beans and not strictly garden varieties made up most of the acreage. The high price of dried beans for food resulted in increasing the acreages in old bean-growing sections and the planting of beans, especially the small white and pinto varieties, in entirely new sections. Early in 1917 the price of beans was so high that stocks from every available source were imported. Among these was a small Lima bean of the Sieva type from the Orient, which resembles the navy bean

so closely that it was fraudulently sold to farmers in new bean-growing sections. It is entirely unsuited for planting in the sections where sold, and is not a desirable food product, as it frequently causes the development of hydrocyanic acid in the digestive tract. This Lima bean is commonly known as the Burma or Rangoon bean.

Michigan, Wisconsin, and New York were at one time the principal white-bean producing States, but now the Western States, principally California, are more dependable, as the crops there are less subject to attacks of anthracnose. This year unfavorable weather damaged the white beans of the Eastern States to such an extent that care was necessary in conserving stocks for planting in 1918, as seed grown in the West is not suitable for the North and East. It is estimated that over 1,000,000 acres were planted in white beans in 1917, requiring over 45,000,000 pounds of seed.

The pinto bean is now next to the white bean in acreage, there having been more than 350,000 acres planted in 1917. This bean is taking well on dry land in the western part of the Great Plains, and its acreage has increased phenomenally in the past two years. The seed requirements now are about 6,000,000 pounds, but the supply of good seed is ample.

The red kidney and tepary beans are grown in the Southwest. Both are used as dried beans. The commercial area grown of the former was about 145,000 acres in 1917, while that of the latter was less than 40,000. These acreages require for their planting about 9,000,000 and 600,000 pounds of seed, respectively. The white tepary bean is sometimes substituted for the navy bean, which it resembles somewhat closely, but it is suited only to the dry Southwest.

California devoted approximately 150,000 acres to the production of Lima beans for drying, and the quantity of seed required for planting this acreage is nearly 12,000,000 pounds. Lima beans are extensively used as a green vegetable, but our seed requirements for this purpose are not known.

It is of the so-called strictly garden varieties of beans that there is difficulty in producing an ample supply of seed. The exact requirements are not definitely known, but they are very large, since almost every garden in the country has a few rows of snap beans of one variety or another. The total area of the varieties planted for seed is probably less than 200,000 acres, scattered throughout the principal beangrowing States.

While sweet corn is grown for seed somewhat generally throughout the entire corn belt, the bulk of our supply comes from Nebraska, Iowa, Minnesota, Illinois, and Ohio. It requires a large quantity of seed for planting the acreage for the canneries, as well as for home gardens, but data are not available as to the total number of bushels needed. Early frosts in the fall of 1917 and subsequent unfavorable weather injured the vitality of the seed and reduced the supply to a point so low as to cause concern, while only a very small stock was carried over from the crop of 1916; therefore the total supply of seed for 1918 is far from abundant.

Before the present war, Europe supplied us with much seed of the cruciferous vegetables, including principally radish, turnip, cabbage, and kale. Most of our foreign radish seed, and we imported heavily, came from Germany, France, and England. Now we are even exporting small quantities to the last two countries. Most of our radish seed is grown in California, and the seed growers there have expanded their acreages of this crop very substantially. (Pl. LXXVI, fig. 1.)

It was estimated that prior to 1914 we imported more than 75 per cent of the turnip seed we required. This came chiefly from Denmark, Sweden, Holland, Germany, France, and England. Most of our domestic supply is produced in the Pacific Northwest. (Pl. LXXVI, fig. 2.) On account of the large surplus stocks in the hands of the seed growers, seedsmen, and jobbers when the war began and the slowness with which the European supply became unavailable, we did not at first realize what it would mean to be dependent upon our own growers for turnip seed. The realization came early in 1917, and the advance in the wholesale price of seed was quicker and more pronounced than that of any other vegetable. The poor seed crop of the Pacific Northwest in 1917 still further increased the price, and from present indications it will be necessary for us to conserve very rigidly our stocks of turnip seed, both of the English and Swede types, until our growers can gain some headway on our home and export demands.

Denmark and Holland have grown most of our cabbage seed in the past, but now domestic production is being extended, especially in the Puget Sound country and on Long Island. The possibilities of cabbage-seed production in the former section are very great. This might also be said of cauliflower, kale, and rape.

Kale seed is grown in considerable quantities in our Southern States. Rape, which is more of a forage crop than a human food, is grown extensively in Japan, as well as in Europe, and just now most of the seed which we are importing comes from that country. The Japanese varieties of winter rape appear to be very much the same as the European varieties. For the fiscal year 1917, 2,285,700 pounds of rape seed were imported.

Much spinach seed is required for home gardens, market gardens and canneries. Formerly it has been secured without difficulty from Holland, Italy, and Greece. On account of embargoes and transportation difficulties, it recently has not been possible to get seed from Europe as freely as desired. In 1917 the spinach-seed acreage in California was greatly increased over previous plantings; likewise that in the Pacific Northwest; but the California crop was short, and the increased acreage failed to produce enough seed to relieve the situation caused by the difficulties surrounding importations from Europe. The canners and market gardeners are taking active interest in the possibilities of the very much increased production of spinach seed along the Atlantic coast and in the Puget Sound country, as well as in California, with a view of making this country independent of foreign countries for its seed. An abundance of prickly-spinach seed can be had from Japan, but this variety is not in favor

The growing of Bermuda onions in southern Texas and the Southwest is now quite an important industry. The seed for this crop comes mostly from the Canary Islands, and nearly 75,000 pounds are now required annually for planting. In the spring of 1917 some apprehension was felt by the growers regarding the arrival of seed from Teneriffe in time for planting, but it arrived without undue delay. Investigations have shown that Bermuda-onion seed of high

quality can be produced in Arizona and New Mexico. This seed gives highly satisfactory results in the United States and also in the Bermuda Islands. The seed of other varieties of onion is produced abundantly, and its production can be as greatly increased as needs warrant. (Pl. LXXVII.)

Vine seeds, so called, are domestic grown, and their production is fairly well scattered over the United States. The important vine seeds are those of muskmelon, cucumber, watermelon, squash, and pumpkin. Most of the muskmelon seed comes from the Arkansas Valley in southeastern Colorado. Cucumber seed likewise comes from this section and from the Northeastern States. Watermelon seed comes from Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida. Squash and pumpkin seed come from Nebraska, Wisconsin, Michigan, and other Northern and Eastern States. With the exception of squash, vine seeds are secondary products, since the crops producing them are grown for other purposes. The supply of seed is sufficient for our needs, as is normally the case.

Until recently much carrot, beet, and parsnip seed was imported, but now our needs are fairly well supplied from our own crops, which for the most part are grown in California. Some seed of these vegetables, especially of carrots, is exported, but the exportable surplus is very small. Because of their relatively high food value, and the fact that two years' growth is required by them to produce seed, the seed supply of these vegetables has been watched with considerable interest. The shortening of the time required for seed production by transferring stecklings to Cuba and Porto Rico for winter planting has been considered, but this course is not deemed practicable as yet.

Much commercial tomato seed is obtained as a by-product from the canning of tomatoes and the making of catsup and other tomato products. In some cases the reverse is true, and the seed is the main product, while the tomato pulp is sold to food manufacturers. The wholesale price of tomato seed has advanced greatly in the past year, but the cost of labor, more than the size of the tomato crop, determines the price and the quantity of seed.

California produces lettuce seed, and the supply is rarely in doubt. Lettuce has little real food value, but, like radishes,

it is found in all gardens and is on the market throughout the year. The seed requirements, therefore, are very large.

A great many other vegetables, such as celery, parsley, okra, and collards, are grown, but we are able to produce enough seed of these to meet our own needs without special difficulty.

The high prices that obtain for vegetable seed doubtless will stimulate the planting of a much larger acreage for seed in the future than even that of 1917, and this should not be discouraged. On the other hand, these prices will tempt inexperienced growers to engage in the industry, with a financial loss to themselves and without profit to the country. This would be a real economic waste and should be avoided.

Other countries, notably Japan, are encouraging the production of vegetable seed, but as yet they have not materially affected the market here.

While it is believed that the present supplies of vegetable seed will meet all needs for 1918, full consideration should be given this subject before launching campaigns for backyard gardens. The supplies are not so great that rigid economy in their use will not be necessary, and this fact should be clearly in the mind of everyone, from the backyard amateur to the experienced market gardener.

SUMMARY AND OUTLOOK.

Never before in the history of our country has the question of seed supply been so vitally important, and never has it been so necessary that all legitimate agencies engaged directly or indirectly in the production or dissemination of seed be utilized efficiently for the national good. It is not the time to break down any feature of the great seed-industry organization, since there are no means at hand effectively to replace the tested and proved parts of the machinery. Individual interests must expect to suffer, but they must be protected to the extent of obtaining from them the greatest possible measure of efficiency.

The seed supply for 1918 presents some serious difficulties. Just how well its needs will be met can not be foretold at this time, but it is believed that producers are awake to the

seed needs of the Nation and that they ultimately will see to it that crop production is not curtailed for lack of seed.

Temporary seed shortages have developed under new economic conditions, and they may continue, but farmers and seedsmen are resourceful, and they may be expected to find ways and means to meet not only the needs of this country. but also those of other countries which may be dependent upon us.

A GRAPHIC SUMMARY OF SEASONAL WORK ON FARM CROPS.

Compiled by O. E. Baker, Agriculturist, Office of Farm Management, C. F. Brooks, Assistant in Farm Management, and R. G. Hainsworth, Head Draftsman, Office of Farm Management.

FOR THE basic data used in the preparation of the following maps and graphs the compilers are indebted to the Bureau of Crop Estimates and its corps of township reporters, to several instructors and extension workers in certain agricultural colleges and experiment stations, and to a number of their colleagues in the Office of Farm Management and the Bureau of Plant Industry.

¹ The collection of information concerning the dates of planting and harvesting the crops and of performing other farm operations was first undertaken by the Bureau of Crop Estimates (at that time Bureau of Statistics) in 1910, and the work placed under the supervision of J. R. Covert. The results of a schedule forwarded to and returned by the county representatives and other agents of that bureau were edited, tabulated, and discussed by Mr. Covert and published as Bulletin No. 85, Bureau of Statistics, United States Department of Agriculture, in 1912. The demand for this bulletin, entitled "Seedtime and Harvest: Cereals, Flax, Cotton, and Tobacco," was so great that it was soon out of print.

In 1913, upon the inception of the project to prepare and publish an Atlas of American Agriculture, it appeared advisable to have more detailed data than were obtainable from these schedules, so with the cooperation of the Bureau of Crop Estimates and in collaboration with Mr. Covert, the Office of Farm Management prepared separate schedules for wheat, corn, potatoes, oats, cotton, grain sorghums, sugar beets, beans, tobacco, hay crops, rye, and barley, which have been forwarded from time to time by the Bureau of Crop Estimates to its list of township reporters, some 33,000 in number. It is the endeavor of that bureau to maintain one crop reporter in each township in the United States, who is selected, in so far as possible, from among the most successful and intelligent farmers in the township. The fullness and accuracy with which the schedules have been filled out is evidence of the loyalty and carefulness of these men. As evidence of the reliability of their reports it may be mentioned that the Office of Farm Management has collected independently a number of farm records of planting and harvesting crops extending back 20 to 30 years, and the average date derived from these records differed less than four days, and usually less than two days, from the mode of the dates (that is, the most frequent date) given by the township reporters in that locality.

The maps showing the usual date of planting, harvesting, and performing other operations on the crops, figures 11 to 81, inclusive, except those mentioned below, are based primarily on these records received from the township reporters. Figure 13 is based largely on correspondence with the several state Experiment Stations. The small corner maps (figs. 12, 20, 32, 40, 48, 50, 52, 56, 68, 74, 78, and 82) show geographic distribution of the acreage of the several crops in 1909 according to the sinus of 1910, Figures 16, 24, and 36 are based on reports relating to the progress of seedtime and harvest in 1917 received through the Section Directors of the United States Weather Bureau. Figure 64, acreage of early potatoes, 1916, is based upon published estimates of the Bureau of Crop Estimates. Figures 66 and 70 are derived from United States census statistics of 1910 worked up by date of harvest zones.

The data used in preparing figures 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 were supplied by C. M. Bennett, Agriculturist, Office of Farm Management, for figure 6 by R. S. Willard, and for figure 7 by E. S. Haskell, both of the same office. Figures 8, 9, and 10 are based upon occupation statistics published in the United States census of 1919. The data used is preparing figures 83 and 85, Dates of picking Elberta peaches and Ben Davis apples, were supplied by H. P. Gould, Pomologist, Bureau of Plant Industry; while those used in preparing figures 87 and 89, Strawberries, picking begins, and Tomatoes, canning season opens, were contributed by F. J. Blair, of the Bureau of Crop Estimates. For data used in various statements in the inscriptions underneath the maps relating to labor requirements on the crops in different localities, the compilers are indebted to Prof. W. F. Handschin, of the University of Illinois, Prof. W. E. Grimes, of the Kansas Agricultural College, Prof. R. E. Karper, of the Texas Agricultural Experiment Station, Prof. F. W. Peck, of the Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station, Prof. E. L. Currier, of the Montana Agricultural College, Prof. R. L. Adams, of the University of California, and to Jos. H. Arnold, C. M. Bennett, G. A. Billings, M. A. Crosby, E. S. Haskell, Byron Hunter, O. A. Juve, A. D. McNair, L. A. Morehouse, M. B. Oates, F. D. Stevens, T. H. Summers, R. S. Washburn, and R. E. Willard, of the Office of Farm Management. Mr. Morehouse also prepared the inscriptions under figures 71 and 72, 73 and 74, 75 and 76, 77 and 78, and Mr. Arnold the inscriptions under figures 79 and 80, 81 and 82. 537

In preparing the maps the dates for each operation were entered from the schedules returned by the township reporters on large county outline maps of the States. The altitude reported on each schedule was indicated also. In making the general maps showing dates by isochronal lines, a strict use of the individual reports was not possible. This is because there is for many crop operations a wide range of dates in the reports received from a county. Such differences are due (1) to the physical conditions, such as temperature, slope, drainage, and soils on each farm, (2) to the individual practice of the farmer, and (3) to the difficulty of estimating for some crops and operations the dates in a "normal or usual season" as requested on the schedule. Therefore, where it was reasonable to do so, county averages of the reported dates were used. Such averages sufficed for most of the operations in flat regions, especially for such definite events as the beginning of wheat harvest. Three sets of conditions, however, prevented the use of averages for all maps or for all parts of a map—large differences in elevation; two or more periods of planting; and, for certain operations, an extended period during which the work can be carried on. Where the reports from different altitudes showed a well-marked topographic influence a contour map was used as an aid in drawing the isochronal lines. Where there were two or more well-defined planting periods the dates used were the modes or the averages of the most numerous group. Corn, spring oats, and late potatoes had to be treated in part in this way. Where the operation may be performed during an extended period the modal date was generally used, or the range in dates was shown on the map. In general, the maps show the average of the usual dates when most (not all) farmers perform the crop operation designated.

The most striking feature of the maps is the northward and upward movement of spring operations and events and the southward and downward progress in autumn. This movement progresses at a rate of approximately 1 degree of latitude or 400 feet of altitude in four days. Local climatic influences of the Great Lakes and of the Atlantic Ocean are evident on almost every map. In operations which may be performed during a long period the maps indicate for the most part only the effect of local competition for labor by other crops, although the underlying control of general climatic conditions is not wholly obscured. Local markets may hasten the harvest of certain crops, such as potatoes, near the large cities.

These maps were prepared originally to provide the farm management and agricultural extension workers with information as to when the various crop operations occur in all sections of the country upon which they might base their studies and recommendations relative to rotations and better types of farming. A fundamental problem

in farm management is so to apportion the acreage of the different crops on a farm as to equalize the seasonal requirements for labor. It is not possible to manage or operate a farm on the same basis as a manufacturing plant. In a factory the employees are protected from the weather so that work can be carried on during the winter and on rainy days in summer without change in the character of the work and with approximately uniform efficiency. But farming is done outdoors, and the farmer is limited not only by weather conditions but also by the progress of the seasons, which require that practically all the crop operations, such as planting and harvesting. be done at a particular time of year. Moreover, the character of the work is constantly changing, and the labor problem is made still more difficult for the farmer to solve because of the fact that the amount of labor required to perform the different seasonal operations on the crops varies widely. In the South it is the chopping out, or thinning, of cotton and the picking of cotton that require the largest amounts of labor. In the wheat regions it is harvest time when the extra labor is needed, in the fruit regions picking time. The cotton must be picked before a certain time or it will be discolored or lost, the wheat must be harvested or it will shatter or be damaged by weather, the fruit must be picked or it will fall and rot. In other regions the amount of plowing that can be done during a certain period in the spring limits the acreage of crops that can be sown. In some regions such operations as plowing, planting, cultivating, and cutting corn, seeding and harvesting winter wheat, and making hay can be so adjusted by the farmer, through apportioning a certain acreage to each of these three crops, that a comparatively smooth or uniform distribution of work throughout the growing season is secured; but in other regions, particularly those where cotton, wheat, or fruit are the dominant crops, there will inevitably occur certain periods in the season when extra labor must be obtained.

In picking cotton the labor of women and children can be employed, and this is true to a small extent in the picking and packing of fruit, hence the local supply of labor is generally sufficient; but in harvesting wheat, men are needed, some of whom must be more or less skilled or experienced, hence the largest army of transient labor assembled in the United States is to be found each summer in the wheat fields of the Central West. Prior to 1917 the corn farmer of the Middle West, and the cotton grower of the South, as well as the wheat farmer in the grain belt, had no appreciable difficulty in securing the extra labor to carry this peak load of work during these rush seasons. Recently this condition has been changed and securing the supply of man labor for these crops also has become a difficult matter.

During the coming season the maps may, therefore, find immediate use, as some of them were used in manuscript form in 1917, in anticipating this demand for labor and planning for its mobilization, especially in the seeding and harvesting of wheat in the Central West and in the gathering and marketing of some of the perishable crops. For this use due account must be taken of the earliness or lateness of the season relative to the normal, which the map presents.

In using these maps and graphs it should also be borne in mind that although the data as to dates of planting and harvesting the staple crops and as to man and horse labor per acre required for the various operations are exact enough to enable the farmer to calculate, if desired, how many acres of each crop may be grown in a given season, it is a mistake to assume that precise adjustments can be made. It would undoubtedly be unwise for the individual farmer to attempt to draw up on this basis a schedule that would indicate the work to be performed each day throughout the spring and summer. Weather conditions can not be controlled by the farm operator. He might have decided in advance to cultivate corn on the afternoon of June 29, but if heavy rains occur he will be compelled to postpone the operation to a later date. A few interruptions of this character would seriously upset any theoretical schedules which might be made.

This limitation, however, does not vitiate the value of the information presented in the maps as indicative of the seasonal labor requirements of the country at large. A glance at the seeding dates given in the spring wheat maps, for instance, shows that in certain regions this operation begins about the first of April, that seeding becomes general about the middle of April and ends about the first of May. These average dates are based on many reports of actual practice, and although they will vary from year to year, sometimes as much as a week or 10 days, it is useful, from the standpoint of labor mobilization, to know about when wheat seeding will need to be done. The wheat grower living in this region understands that the preliminary preparation of the land must precede planting. He must make allowance for time in which to perform these operations and crowd no large amount of other work into this period. The same suggestion will apply in the production of any other important farm crop.

The dates of the various operations on the crops are in most cases not likely to change materially, but the efforts of the experiment stations and the United States Department of Agriculture may in time alter considerably the dates when certain operations are performed, such, for instance, as the time of seeding winter wheat in the Mississippi Valley, south of the 39th parallel of latitude. (Compare figs. 11 and 13.)

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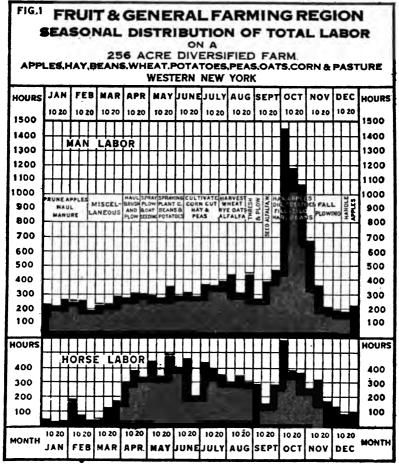


Fig. 1.—Fruit growing and general farming are the more common types of farming in western New York. The intensive fruit farms, which are found mostly within a few miles of the shores of Lake Ontario and Lake Erie and bordering the inland lakes, usually have only a few acres of farm crops. In the general farming area lying back of the fruit belt small to medium-sized apple or chards are found on many farms. The man-labor requirement on these diversified farms is quite uniform throughout the growing season with the exception of the haying and harvesting period in midsummer and again during the period of fall seeding and of bean, potato, and apple harvesting. The farm for which labor distribution is shown in the graph above is in a diversified farming region, and although an apple or chard is a common enterprise in this region, it is musual to find an orchard so large in proportion to other enterprises. There were on this farm in the year illustrated in the graph above 40 acres of apples in full bearing and 20 fpeers, 48 of hay, 26 of wheat, 19 of beans, 19 of oats, 15 of pess, 12 acres of corn for sliage, 9 acres of rye, 7 of potatoes, 7 of pasture, and a half acre of cabbage and other vegetables. Two men were hired by the year, another man was employed during July and August, and during the latter half of September 2 to 4 extra men were hired by the day. During October and early November a force varying from 8 to 24 in number was employed in picking and packing the apple crop. The orchard had been well cared for and it was a favorable season. Several thousand transient fruit pickers, it is estimated, are sent out each fall by labor agencies in Buffalo, Rochester, and Syracuse to work in the orchards and on the farms of western New York.

In the graph above and in those on the following pages, whenever a 10-day bar is separated by a white line into two parts the lower part represents the hours of labor on this farm and the portion of the bar above the white line represents the number of hours of labor put in by the farmer and his help on neighbors' farms, either given in exchange for help or, in some cases, paid for in each by the neighbors. The records do not indicate the time when the neighbors gave labor to this farmer in return, but in this and succeeding graphs undoubtedly some of the higher 10-day bars, especially those during the harvest season, when this practice of exchanging labor is most common, are the result in part of help received from neighbors. (Data supplied by C. M. Bennett, Agriculturist, Office of Farm Management.)

on a

Fig. 3.—Corn belt: Seasonal distribution of total labor 270-acre corn and small grain farm, southwestern nois. Fig. 2.—Corn belt: Seasonal distribution of total labor on a hay farm, 325-acre corn, small grain, timothy seed and central Iowa.

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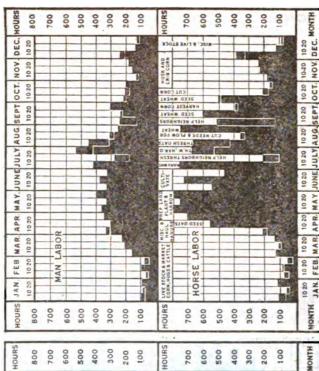
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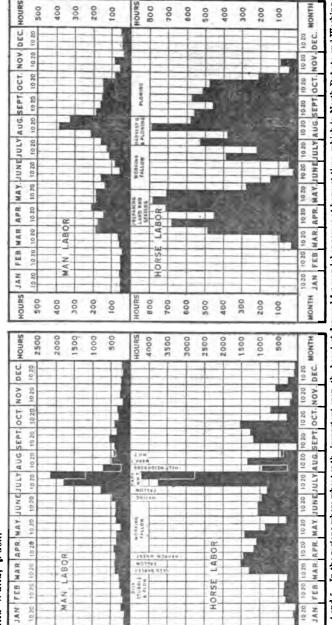
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July and early Angust, when haying, harvesting and shock thrashing are in progress. On the Jows farm the extra labor from July 20 to August 10 was the exchange above freighbors. The horse labor is less uniform in amount than man labor and resches its passed load usually in April and May and again in the exchange above in cent for single the peak load at this time is intensified. On the Jows farm, which had 102 acres of corn, of which 20 were out for Darley, winter and spring wheat, together with 63 acres of hay, the farmer lines two men by the year, and when a neglibrors. The Illinois farm had 140 acres of corn, 54 of otals, 50 of wheat, and the inhor, in addition to that of intrins the general from March to December. He also exchanges labor with his neighbors. (Data supplied by C. M. farmer himself, consisted of two men hired during the season from March to December. He also exchanges labor with his neighbors. the early fall. Where corn is cut for silage the peak load at this time is intensified, slages, 48 acres of outs and a low acres each of barroy whiter and spring wheat, fore arrecever is needed, exchanges work with his neighbors. The Illinois farm had 4 deperhaps, more evenly distributed than in part of July and early August, when hay mostly the exchange labor of neighbors. the farmer himself, consisted of two instances, Semett, Office of Farm Management,)

Fig. 5.—Spring wheat region: Seasonal distribution of total abor on a 600-acre grain farm, North Dakota. Fig. 4.—Winter wheat region: Beasonal distribution of total on a 800-acre wheat and summer fallow farm, Walla Walla, Wash. labor



3000

HOURS

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we occurs curing the latter half of August. In the spring-wheat region an earlier peak load, less accentuated but of longer duration, occurs during April and early May, when the preparation of the land and the seeding first of wheat and then of outs, barley or flax takes place. In eastern Washington work summer fallow is also required at this time. On the Dakota farm, which had 280 series of series where the formal sections of the barley of the parties of the barley of the parties of the barley of the equired at this time. On the Dakota farm, which had 280 acres of spring wheat, 127 acres of oats, 60 acres barley, 49 acres flax, 20 acres hay, and 52 acres fallow brothers did all the work except during the harvesting and thrashing season, August 1 to September 10, when 1 to 3 day laborers were employed. In this region It is customary to life the thrushing done, the thrusher furnishing nearly all of the labor required. This labor does not appear on the graph. The eastern Wash-ligton for the far had in this year 31 acres in wheth. It is marine, a six in pasture crops, and 24 acres of summer fallow. The labor force, in addition to the farmer himself, consisted of one man hired by the year and two men hired for the greater part of the year. The farmer bired, in addition, 10 to 20 transient isborws during two weeks of harvest time and exchanged labor with a neighbor. In this region it is customary for the farmer to do his own thrushing. (Data supplied by C. M. Bennett,) F163. 4 and 5.—In the regions where wheat is the important crop, the heavlest demand for man labor comes at harvest time, which in North Dakota and Washing

HOURS

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distribution of field labor

and oats farm, southern

Fig. 7.—Cotton belt: Seasonal on a 552-acre cotton, corn, Georgia. Fig. 6.—Cotton belt: Seasonal distribution of field labor on a 160-aore farm, Black Wany Prairie of Texas.

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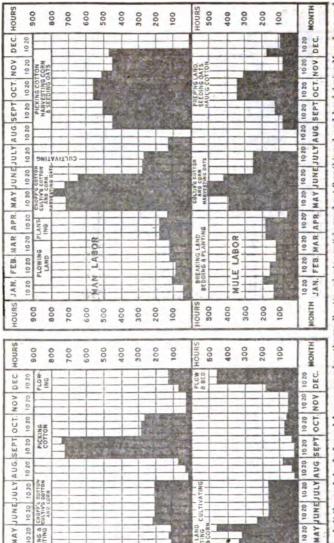
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Figs. 6 and 7.—In the cotton belt the peak load of man labor occurs when the small cotton plants are "chopped out," or thinned, and again when the octton is placed during the April to June, when both cotton is that that when the cotton is backed during the April to June, when both cotton and corn require cultivation and corn crops. In the nothern portion of the cotton both corn whiter when cotton is hauled to the gin, oats are seeded, and quantity states and when cotton is halled to the gin, oats are seeded, and quantity states of or next year's cotton and corn crops. In the nothern portion of the cotton belt or on heavy sells fatther south, the peak load of mule labor is frequently siftled to early agring. On the Texas farm, which had 117 arcs of octon, and of other, and a sorghum, the farmer and three sons did not the work except policing. During September and entry October a colored family of four was hired to help in picking cotton. The Gorgia farm is more diversified than is usual in the South. It had 75 agrees of sugar cans. The peanuts and sweet politices were believed of the colored croppers, with a small amount of day laborhived to help in harvesting onds. The peanuts and sweet politices were by the other croppers, the other croppers the farm.

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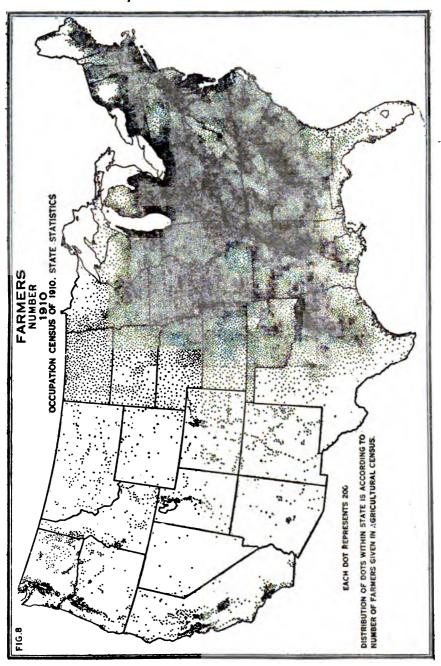


Fig. 8.—This map is based upon the returns of the occupation census of 1910, and the state totals, which are given in the report, have been distributed by counties according to the number of farms as given in the agricultural census of 1910. It is noticeable that, except for the Black Prairie of Texas, the areas of greatest density are located east of the Mississippi and Wabsh rivers, particularly along the east side of the Mississippi River from Vicksburg to Cairo. In the Piedmont of Georgia and South Carolina, in the Ohio River Valley, in southeastern Pennsylvania, and in the lake plains of New York, Ohio, and Mishigan. The total number of farmers in 1910 is given as 5,926,690. Texas leads with 401.118, while Georgia ranked second with 285,548, Mississippi third with 270,255, and Missouri fourth, having in that year 266,384 farmers.

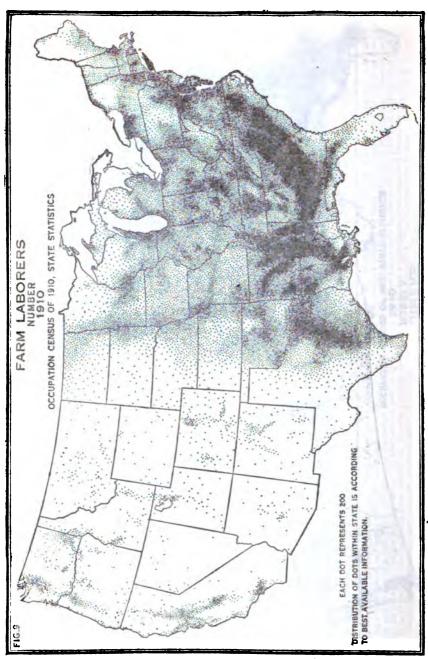


Fig. 9.—This map is based upon the returns of the occupation census of 1910, and the state totals, which are given in the report, have been distributed by counties partly according to the expenditure for labor, as given in the agriculture census of 1910, partly according to rural population, and partly according to information as to local employment of labor. Therefore, the number of dots in a state is exprect, according to the census, but the distribution of the dots within a State is only approximate. In the South, where the cotton crop gives employment to a great number of farm laborers, the negre croppers probably have been included as farm laborers in the occupation census. Outside the cotton belt the greatest cencentration of farm laborers is found in the tobacce districts of Kentucky, Tennessee, southwestern Ohio, southeastern Pennsylvania, and the Connecticut Valley; in the tracking sections of eastern Maryland and Delaware, of Long Island and of western New York, and in the sugar-cane region of Louisiana.

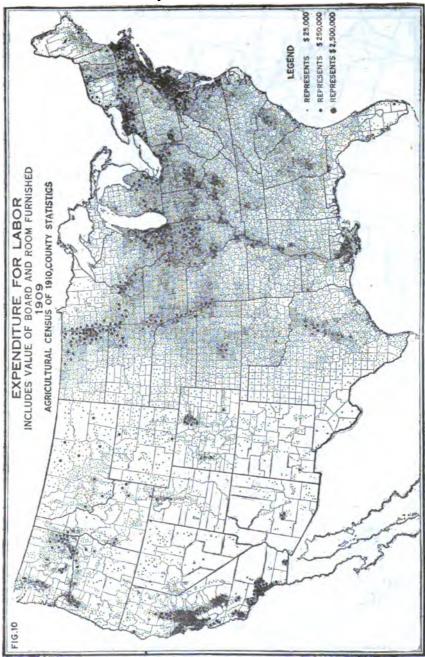
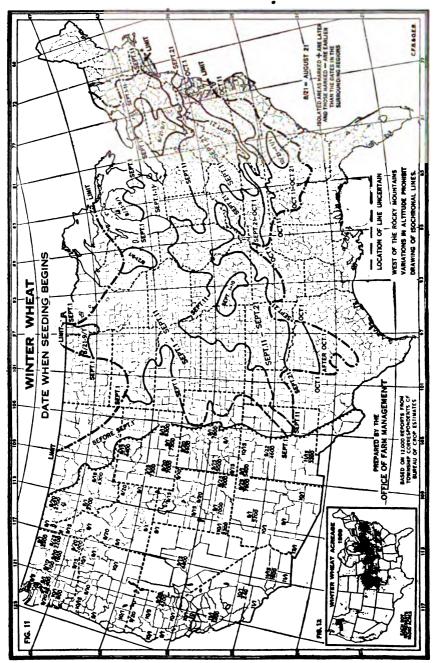
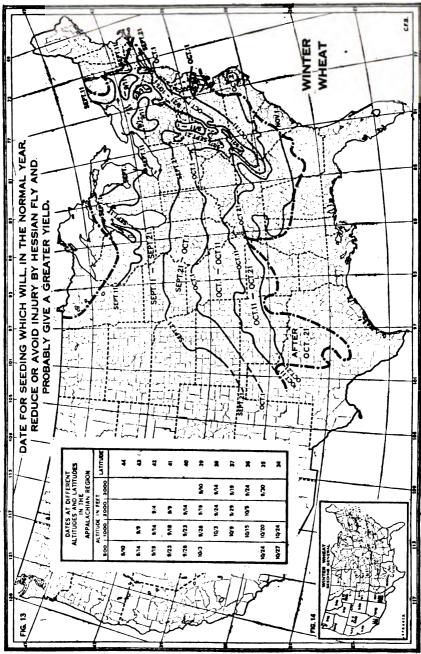


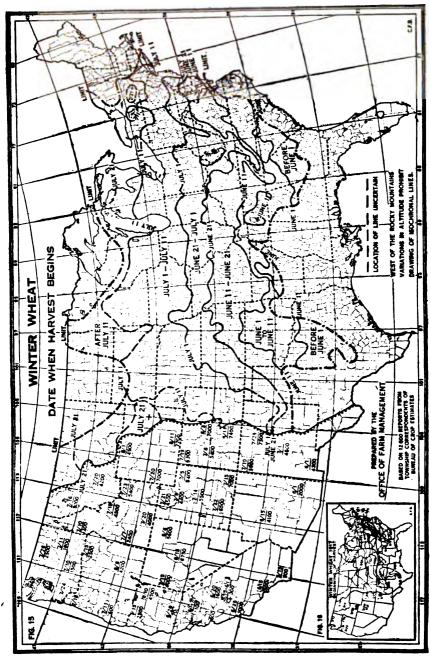
Fig. 10.—The regions of greatest expenditure for labor include the belt of intensive types of farming which extends from Baltimore to Boston, the fruit and truck region of western New York, the market corn region of central lilinois, the Eigin dairy district of northern Illinois and southeastern Wisconshi the spring-wheat region of the Red River valley, the wheat region of eastern Washington and Oregon, the northern Williamette Valley, and, most prominent of all, the valleys of California, where fruit, affalfa, small grain, truck, beans, and sugar beets are the important copy, and large amounts of labor are required at different times in the year. In the South the only areas that stand out prominently are the sugar-cane districts of Louisiana and the Black Prairie region of Texas. The labor of the South is paid mostly in kind or by shares of the crop, rather than in cash. The map presents, by counties, the statistics of each wages plus cost of board, according to the agricultural census of 1910.



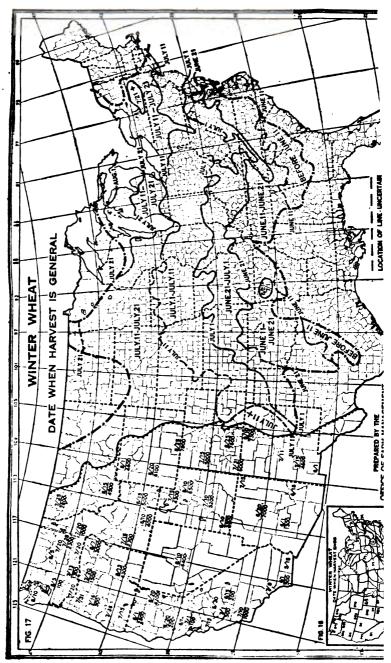
Figs. 11 and 12.—Kansas and Nebraska have nearly one-third the winter wheat acreage in the United States. Seeding begins in central Nebraska about September 1 and ends in Texas about October 1. In southwestern Illinois, Jouthern Indiana, and northeastern Maryland, other important centers, seeding begins usually about September 21. In eastern Kansas, Missouri, southern Illinois and Indiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee, the seeding dates shown on the map, which represent the practice of most farmers, are so early as to invite injury by the fip in practically every year. It is a serious problem to seed late enough to avoid injury by the Hessian fly and yet early enough to give the wheat a good start before winter sets in. In this and succeeding maps the heavy dot-and-ash line represents the boundary of the crop, beyond which either the acreage is so small as to be of no significance or else the data are insufficient to permit drawing isochronal lines.



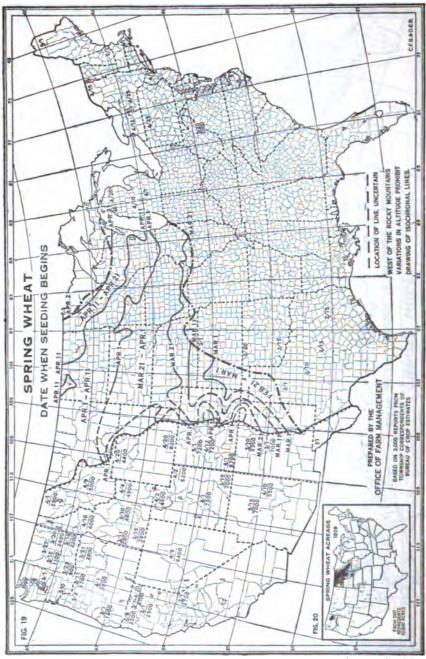
Figs. 13 and 14.—This map is an attempt to correlate the recommendations of the different experiment stations as to the date of seeding winter wheat. The results of experiments in Kansas, Nebraska, Iowa, Indana, and Ohio show that when the Hessian fly is prevalent the best yields may be expected when the seeding occurs just after the emergence of the last autumn brood of the fly: and when the fly is not numerous, the best time for seeding generally is about a week earlier. In the years when the fly is prevalent the actual dates to be recommended depend on experiments in the fields at the time, so in such years it is necessary to follow closely the recommendations of the state entomologists. Planting in the north depends largely on the season and the labor situation. South of the thirty-inith parallel and east of southeastern Kansas the autumn is long enough to allow seeding after the average date of emergence of the fly, with the best chance of still securing the maximum yield.



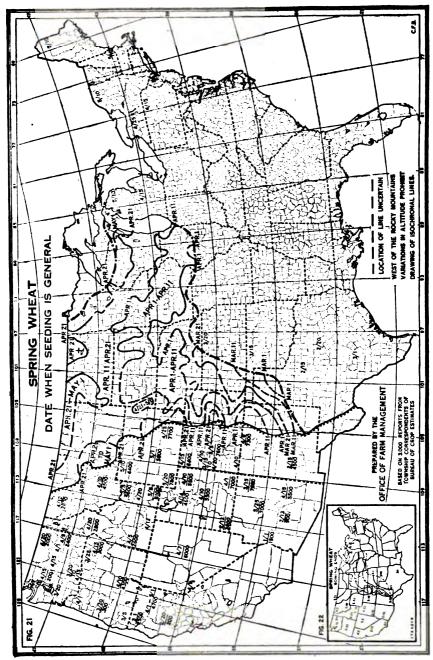
Figs. 15 and 16.—The harvest of winter wheat begins in central Texas usually about May 25, but is of little importance until central Oklahoma is reached about June 5. In this section the army of transient harvest hands begins to assemble, and reaches its maximum size in central Kansas, where the harvest begins usually about June 16. By June 25, in the normal year, there are 50,000 transient laborers, it is estimated, working in the wheat fields of Kansas. Part of them have come in from the South, upon completion of the harvest there; part of them have been gathered from the cities and other centers of employment in the east, largely by the public and private labor agencies in Kansas City and other points; and in part the army is composed of local labor assembled from adjacent towns and villages. By July I harvest has begun in central Nebraska, and the harvest army, constantly disintegrating and being reinforced by fresh recruits, is busy in the wheat fields of that state.



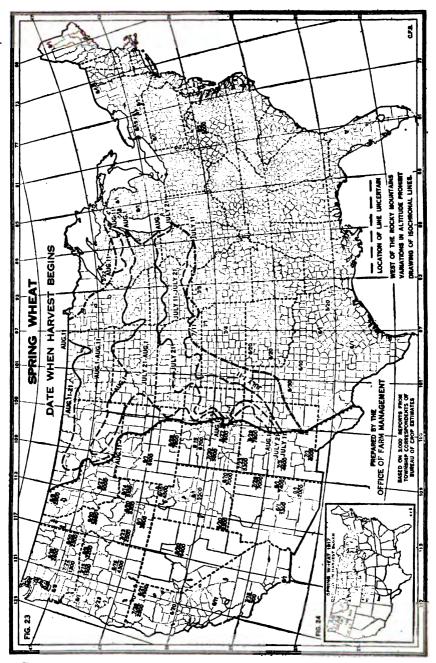
Figs. 17 and 18.—Winter-wheat harvest becomes general in central Okishoma usually about neentral Kansas about June 25, in southern Nebraska about July 5. In southwestern Illinern Indians, and eastern Maryland it is general usually from June 21 to July 1. Along the nogin of the winter-wheat region in New York and Michigan, and also in eastern Washington a harvest is general about July 21. Two weeks after harvest is general it is over in all the except in eastern Washington and Oregon, where the harvest may not be finished before A 25. Records indicate that the average amount of labor required to harvest an acre of whee eastern Pennsylvania, western Illinois, and Kansas is about 3 man and 4 horse hours, and it about the same amount. In California, with a combine harvester, the figures are 2 man and abours per acre; and in eastern Washington, with a combine, 2 man and 8 horse hours, with bine 1.5 man and 3 horse hours to harvest and 4.5 man and 4.5 horse hours to thrash an acr



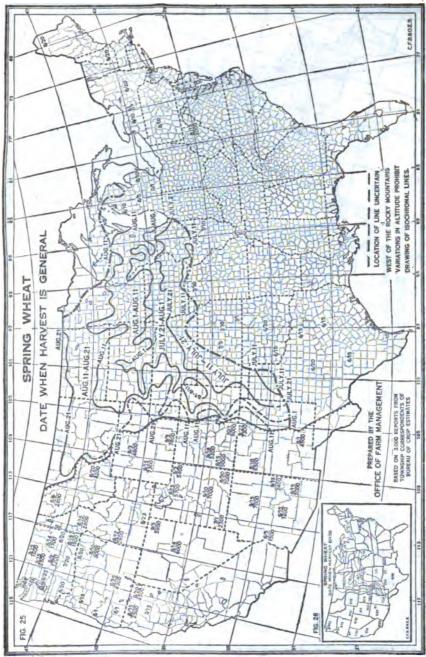
Figs. 19 and 20.—Minnesota, the Dakotas, and eastern Washington produce over three-fourths of the spring wheat grown in the United States. Lines are drawn on the map only for those areas east of the Rocky Mountains having in general over 100 acres per county in the census year 1909. The seeding of spring wheat begins in northerakern Nebraska and western lowa usually about March 21, and during the following ten days it begins throughout most of South Dakota and in Minnesota south of the Minnesota triver. By April 11 it is beginning in northern North Dakota and north central Minnesota. Along the margin of the spring wheat belt in northern Minnesota and at higher altitudes in the West seeding usually does not begin until April 21 or even later. Seeding throughout the spring wheat region should be done as early as possible to avoid rust and secure the best yleads, and for this reason it is necessary to do as much plowing as possible the previous fall.



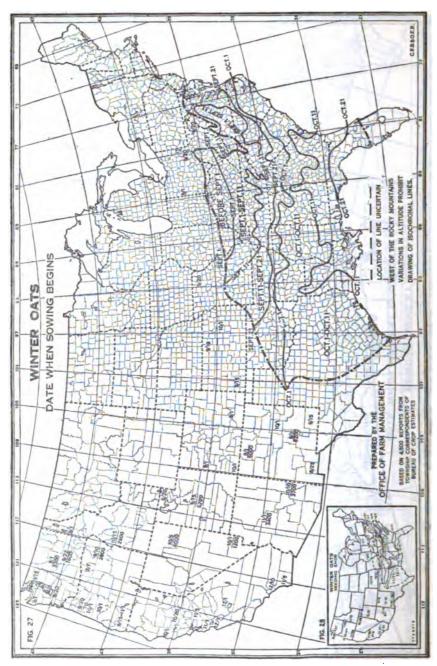
Figs. 21 and 22.—The seeding of spring wheat becomes general in southern South Dakota usually about April 1 and in northern North Dakota about April 21, or some 10 days after the beginning date. In the Big Bend and Palouse districts of eastern Washington seeding is general during the first half of April. The usual duration of the period from beginning to end of seeding is about 20 days in Nobraska, where the acreage is small, 30 days in northern South Dakota, and 35 days in northern North Dakota. In eastern Washington it is 30 to 40 days. In the Dakotas and Montana seeding wheat requires on the average a half hour of man labor per acre and two hours of horse labor. The amount of land that can be seeded is dependent not only upon the supply of labor and efficient use of machinery in fall plowing, and in the plowing and seeding after the land thaws out in the spring, but also upon weather conditions during both these periods.



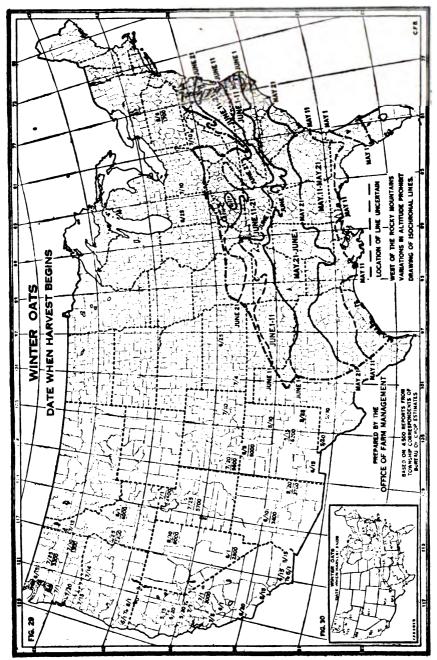
Figs. 23 and 24.—The harvest of spring wheat begins in eastern Nebraska and western Iowa usually about July 15, or at the time winter wheat harvest ends. By August 1 wheat harvest has usually begins throughout precisely all of South Dakots and southern Minnesots and by August 11 it has nearly reached the Canadian line. In eastern Washington and Oregon spring wheat harvest begins usually about July 15 in the warmer river velleys, but not until August 10 on the higher, cool plateous. The transient lator supply for the harvest in Minnesots and the Dakotss, estimated at 30,000 to 40,000 men, comes mostly from States to the south where it has been employed in harvesting witter wheat, and from the logging camps. In Washington and Oregon the local supply is depended on, suppremented by laborers from the legaling camps and mines. The corner insert map, figure 24, shows that the season of 1917 was nearly normal, but that it varied from the normal a few days in many places.



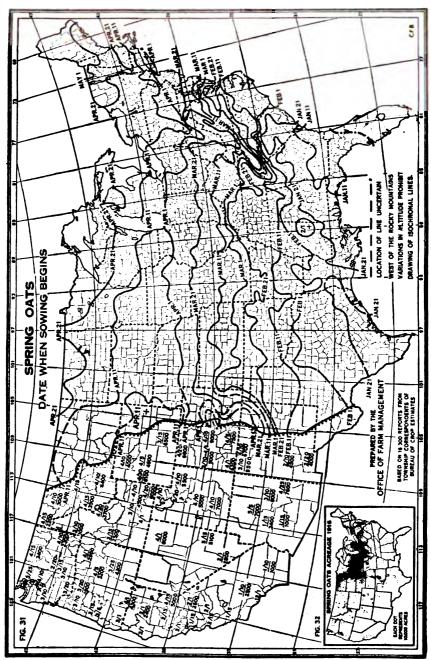
Figs. 25 and 26.—Harvest becomes general in the southern portion of the spring wheat States usually by August 1 and is over by August 11. Along the Canadian border harvest becomes general by August 21 and is practically over by September 1. Most of the spring wheat in the United States is harvested in the normal year between July 20 and September 1, and practically all by September 20. Records from North Dakota show that it requires, on the average, about 3 hours for a man with four horses to plow and prepare an acre for wheat, a half hour to seed an acre, 1 to 2 hours to harvest an acre, using only 2 or 3 horses, 3 hours to thrash an acre, of which two-thirds is the labor of a hired crew, and 1 hour to market the wheat, a total of about 9 man hours and 21 horse hours of labor per acre. In the leastern Palouse district of Washington the average total amounts are 9 man and 29 horse hours; in the Big Bend region, including labor on summer fallow, 8 hours of man and 46 hours of horse labor.



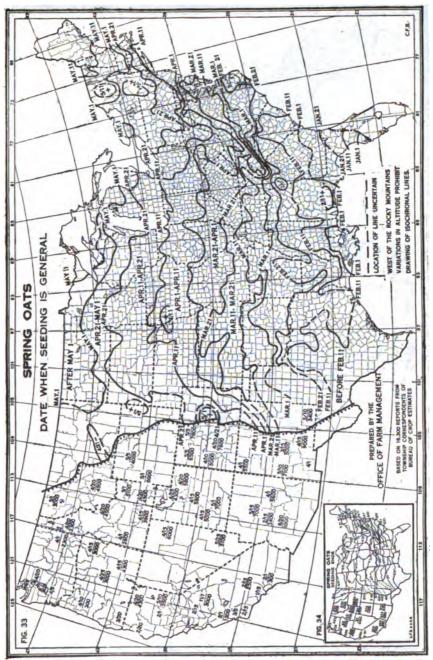
Figs. 27 and 28.—Winter oats are grown mostly where the average winter temperature exceeds 35 degrees, and hence are important only in the regions south of the Ohio and Potomac rivers and along the Pacific coast. Seating begins in the Ohio and Potomac valleys usually about September 1 and ends about October 1; along the northern margin of the cotton belt seeding begins about September 21 and may continue 30 to 50 days; and finally in northern Florida it begins about October 21 and is ower by December 15. In western Washington seeding takes place usually during September, in Oregon during September and October, and in California mostly during October and November. Winter oats in all these sections are mostly a minor crop and seldom require extra labor. In the South plowing, harrowing, and seeding an acre of oats requires in general 6 to 10 hours of man labor and 13 to 20 hours of horse or mule labor. To produce an acre of winter oats requires from 10 to 20 hours of man labor.



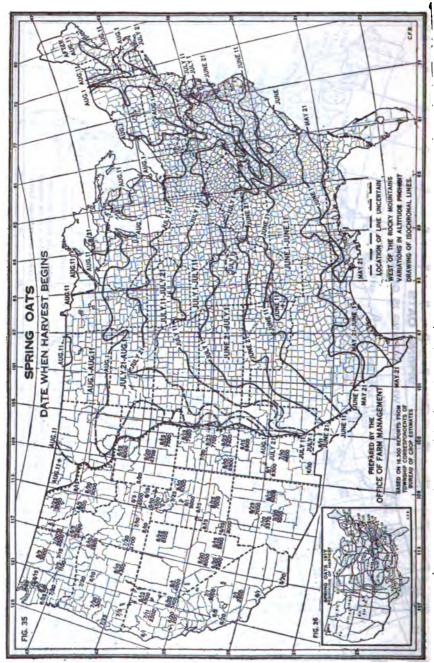
Figs. 29 and 39.—The harvesting of winter oats begins along the Gulf Coast early in May and progresses northward across the cotton belt at the rate of 10 to 15 miles a day, reaching the northern boundary of the cotton belt about June 11 and the lower Ohio and Potomac valleys usually by June 21. The winter oat harvest ends along the Gulf Coast usually by June 1, and in the Ohio and Potomac valleys before July 11. Along the Pacific Coast the harvest of winter oats begins in western Washington during the latter part of June or early July and may last into August; in western Oregon it begins usually during the first half of July and is over by August 1; and in California the harvest begins from mid-April to July 1, varying with locality and farm practic), and ends usually 4 to 8 weeks later. In the South it requires in general about 8 hours of man labor and 6 hours of mule labor to harvest an acre of oats, except in central Texas where only half as much man labor is required.



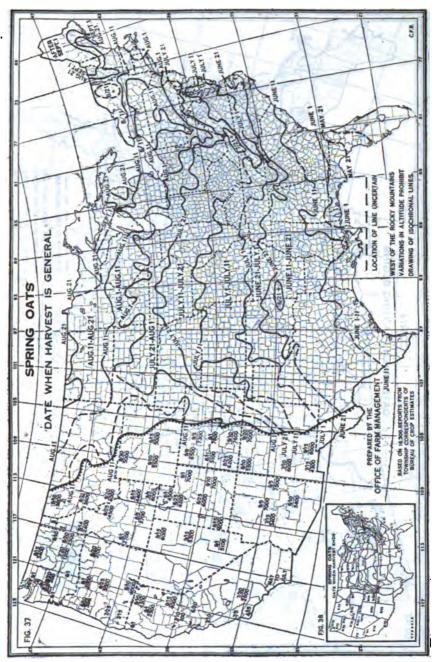
Fros. 31 and 32.—The spring oat belt consists of a crescent-shaped area extending from New England to North Dakota, bounded on the north by the Great Lakes and on the south and west by a curved line across central Ohio, Illinois, eastern Nebraska and thence northward along the Missouri river. In the corn belt oats are sown in the spring before corn-planting time and harvested in July after the corn is laid by. There is, therefore, very little competition with the more profitable corn crop for labor at critical times of year. In the spring wheat region of the Northwest there is some competition for labor between the seeding of oats and wheat, but as the oats are generally sown 10 days later than the wheat they serve to lengthen and make less strenuous the seeding season. Outside the oat belt described above, spring oats are not a sufficiently important crop to affect seriously the requirements for farm labor.



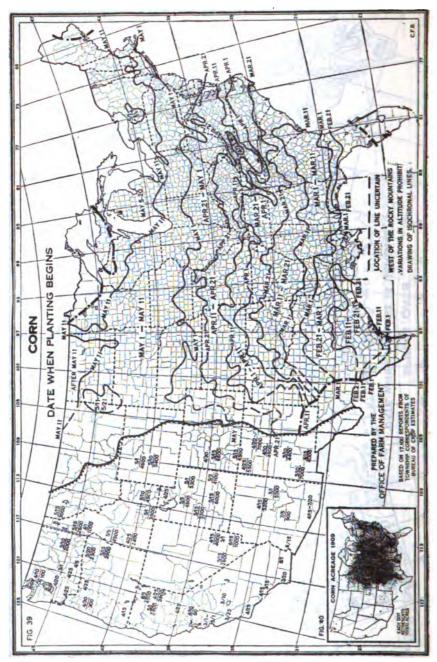
Figs. 33 and 34.—Seeding of spring oats begins in the lower portion of the Ohio and Potomac river valleys about March 1 to 15 in the normal year, is general March 21 to April 1, and is over by April 11 to 21; in central Illinois seeding begins about March 21, is general usually April 1 to 11, and ends about April 15; in northern Iowait begins about April 5, is general about April 11, and ends about April 21; and along the Canadian line in North Dakota it begins about April 21, is general about May 5, and is finished by May 21. In western New York seeding begins usually about April 15, is general by May 1, and is over by May 15. The preparation of land for oats in east central Illinois requires about two hours of man labor per acre and eight hours of horse labor, while for drilling about a half hour of man labor and an hour of horse labor are required. In other parts of the country the labor required for this operation appears to be 50 to 100 or more per cent greater.



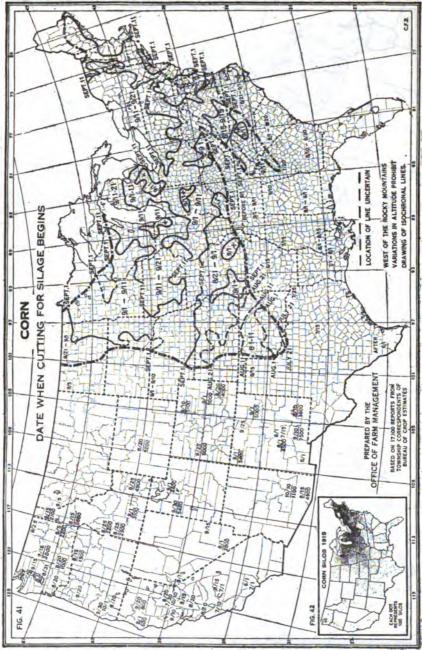
Figs. 35 and 36.—The harvest of spring oats begins along the Gulf coast usually about May 21 and progresses northward up the Mississippi valley at the average rate of 14 miles a day until about August 11 it crosses the boundary into Canada. Along the Atlantic and Pacific coasts the rate is somewhat less rapid. In central Illinois, central I low, and eastern Nebraska, in which states nearly one-third of the total oat acreage of the United States is found, the harvest usually begins about July 11. The small map in the corner shows the beginning of oet harvest in 1917. In this year the season in some districts was two weeks later than usual. In east central Illinois about 2.5 hours man labor and 3 to 4 hours of horse labor are required to cut and shock an acre of oats. In North Dakots, the labor required for harvesting averages 2 hours of man labor and 4 hours of horse labor per acre, while in western New York the corresponding figures are 3.5 hours of man labor and 3.5 hours of horse labor per acre.



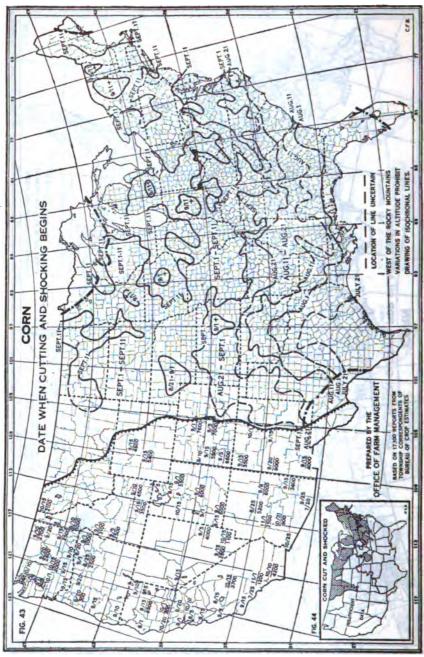
Fros. 37 and 38.—The harvest of spring cats is general along the Gulf Coast usually about June 11; but it is July 1-11 before the harvest is general in eastern Kansas, the lower Ohio and the Potomae valleys. This is about the time wheat harvest ends. By mid-July cat harvest is general in Central Rimots, and southern Ohio, and by mid-August in western Washington, North Dakots, and New York. Oat harvest is considerably later in the Eastern States than at the same latitude and altitude in the central and far West. In Minnesota, the Dakots, and eastern Washington cat harvest seriously overlaps upon that of spring wheat. The total amount of labor required to produce an acre of spring oats including thrashing averages about 10 hours of man labor and 20 hours of horse labor in North Dakota, 20 hours of man labor and 25 hours of horse labor in western New York.



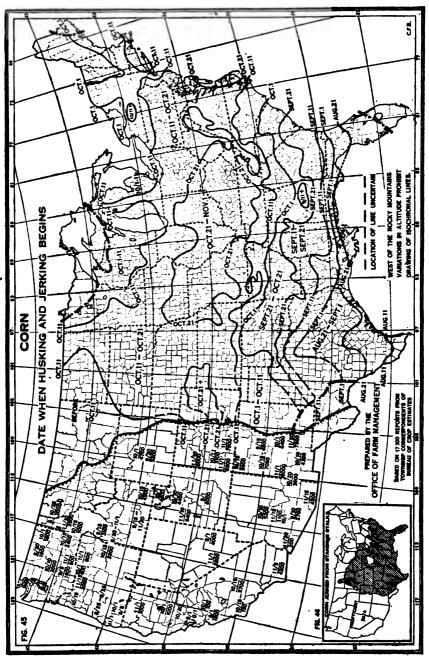
Figs. 39 and 40.—Planting corn begins usually in extreme southern Texas before February 1 and progresses northward at an average rate of 13 miles a day until by May 1 it has begun generally in central Nebraska, north central illinois, and central Ohio. During the next 10 days corn planting begins in practically all regions where it is grown northward to the Canadian line. Throughout the great corn States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa, and in southern Wisconsin, Minnesota, and south Dakota corn planting is general about May 15. In New York and northern and eastern Wisconsin it is general the last week in May. Planting is completed throughout the corn bett usually by June 1. In the South there are often two important planting periods during the season, an early planting before cottom planting and a late planting usually in June, after the planting and chopping out of cottom is completed.



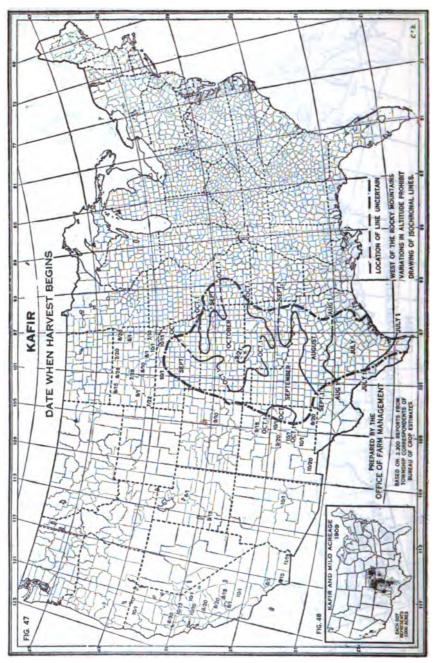
Figs. 41 and 42.—The construction of siles has progressed most rapidly in the Northern States, where dairying is more widely developed than in the corn belt and corn does not have as long a season in which to mature. It is estimated that 50 per cent of the corn acreage in New York is now cut for silage, 36 per cent in Wisconsin, 11 per cent in Minnesots, 14 per cent in Kansas, and 9 per cent in Illinois. In Kansas, Missouri, and Virginia cutting for silage usually takes place during August. Throughout the dairy and northern corn belt States cutting and putting up silage occurs during deptamber. This operation requires the labor of several men and in dairy districts especially it is often difficult to secure sufficient help. Records from Wisconsin indicate that cutting corn for the silo requires on the average about 4 hours of man labor and 4 hours of horse labor per acre, while filling the silo requires about 18 hours of man labor and 12 hours of horse labor per acre of corn.



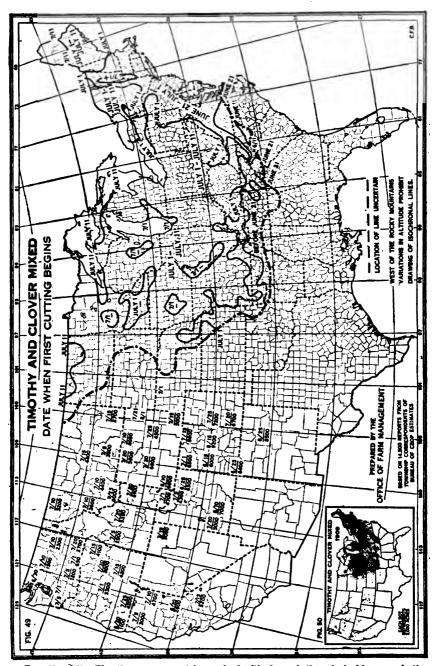
Figs. 43 and 44.—The cutting and shocking of corn is the common practice in the dairy States of the North and in Ohlo, northeastern Kentucky, West Vigrinia and most of Virginia and Maryland, also in the eastern Ozark region of Missouri. Cutting begins throughout this entire area between September I and 21, and is general from I lowa eastward to New York, Tennessee, and Virginia during the last 10 days of September. In the hill lands of New England and New York, in northern Wisconsin and from I lowa northward, westward and southward it is general between September 10 and 20. The dotted line on the small corner map shows where the beginning of cutting and shocking of corn occurs, on the average, at the same time as the beginning of seeding of winter wheat. Cost accounting records and reports from six States show that the amount of labor required to cut, husk, and hand an acre of corn averages about 25 hours of man and half as many hours of horse labor per acre.



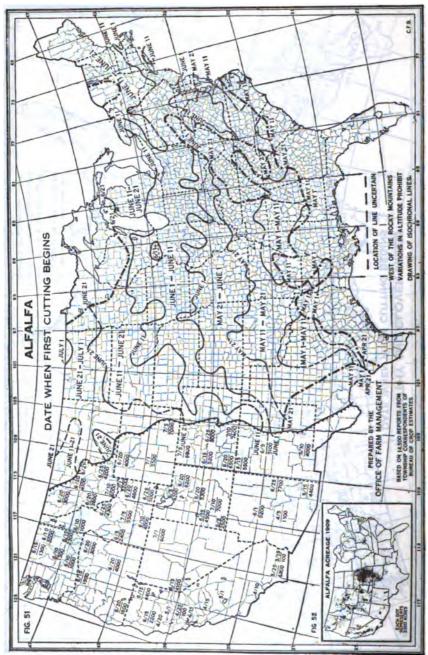
Figs. 45 and 48.—Husking or jerking from the standing stalk is the common method of harvesting corn in the Southern States and south and west of a line from Fort Wayne, Ind., to Bismarck, N. Dak. This operation begins in the Southern States during September (in central Texas and Florida during August) and becomes general during October. Along the northern margin of the corn belt and in the dairy States, it occurs during the first 10 days of October. In the heart of the corn belt, where there is a large acreege to handle, it begins during the latter part of October and continues into December. The amount of labor required for this operation, as shown by records from several States, ranges in general from 4 to 8 hours of horse labor and 4 to 12 hours of horselabor per acre. The saverage is about 6 hours of man and 8 hours of horse labor per acre. The stalks are plowed under later in the fall or in the spring. Little transient seasonal labor is employed in the culture of corn.



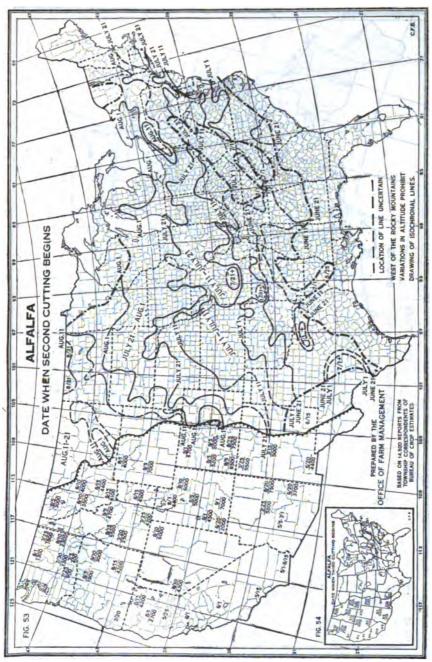
Figs. 47 and 48.—Kafir is confined practically to the Southwestern States where, owing to its drought resistant character, it has become an important crop. It is both harvested for seed and cut for forage. As kafir is a comparatively new crop, farm practice in its culture is not as well established as with other staple crops, while the long growing season and vicissitudes of rainfall over much of its range not only permit but enforce wide latitude in dates of planting and harvest; hence, it has been possible to draw lines on the map only by 30-day rather than by 0-day periods. Very little transfent labor from outside is used in harvesting kafir corn. In the Staked Plains of Taxes records show an average labor requirement for harvesting and thrashing of 4.4 man hours and 37 hours hours. These figures, however, will vary greatly with the size of the crop and other conditions.



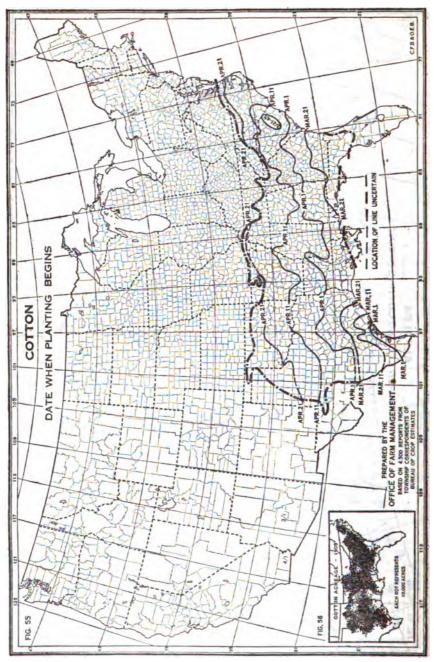
Figs. 49 and 50.—Timothy, sown separately or mixed with clover, is the principal hay crop in the corn belt and in the eastern, northern, and Pacific northwestern dairying regions of the United States. In the hill lands of New York and in northern Wisconsin it constitutes over one-half of the acreage of all crops, and hay-making time becomes the busiest period of the year. In the corn belt the cutting of clover hay frequently occurs at the same time as the last cultivation of corn and as a result there is a heavy demand for labor at this time of year. Little translent labor is used, however, in cutting and curing hay. Throughout the region of greatest production the first cutting of timothy and mixed hay begins usually about July 1. Along the cuthern margin of the belt it may begin one to two weeks earlier and along the Canadian border one to two weeks later. In general, the average amount of labor required to cut, rake, and haul to the barn is about 8 man and 8 horse hours per acre.



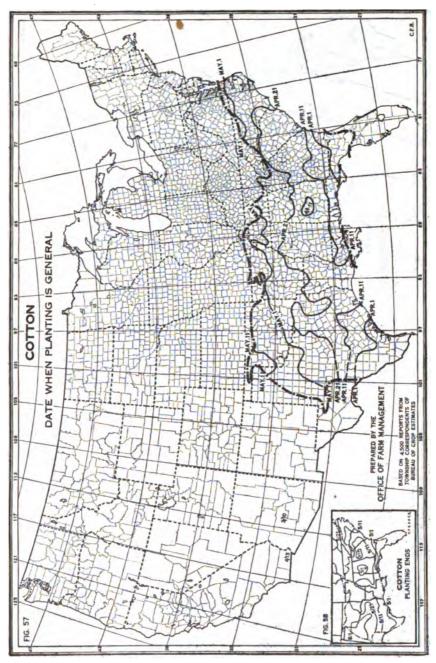
Fros. 51 and 52.—Alfalfa requires soils that are not acid, and its culture is most profitable in a climate that is not rainy during the summer, when the crop is being made. Consequently alfalfa thrives best in the Western States, and fairly well in the limestone regions in the East, where its culture-is increasing rapidly. This increase is retarded by the fact that the first cutting of alfalfa commonly conflicts with corn cultivation. About one-half of the alfalfa of the United States is grown under cirrigation, and less than 6 per cent of the acreage in 1909 was east of the Missouri River. It is the dominant crop in the eleven Western States. The first cutting begins in the Imperial and Salt River Valleys about April 1; in the Great Valley of California April 15; in the Yakima and lower Snake River Valleys, in the Balt Lake region, and in north-eastern Colorado about June 10; in the Arkanass Valley of Colorado and in north-central Kanasa about June 1. This period of cutting lasts only a few days.



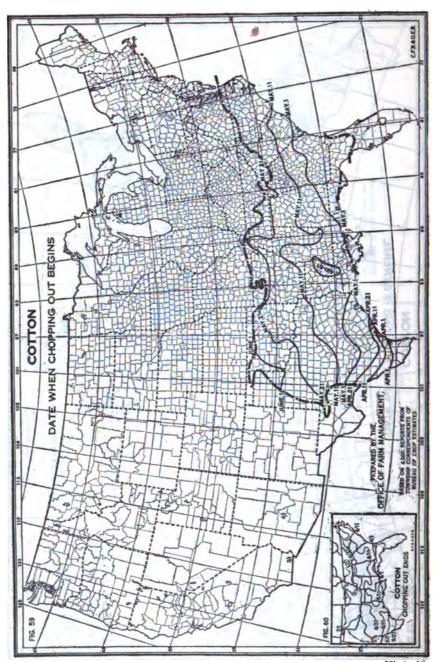
Figs. 53 and 54.—Throughout practically the entire range of alfalfa in the United States a second cutting is secured. This begins generally about five to seven weeks after the first cutting. In some of the warmer sections of the West it may occur within a month of the first cutting, while in the cooler sections of the North and East nearly two months may elapse. The requirement per acre for the first cutting, raking, and stacking in Kansas is about 3 hours of man and 10 hours of horselabor. For the second cutting the amount is generally somewhat less than for the first, as the crop is usually lighter. A third cutting of alfalfa occurs throughout most of its range, and in California six and even seven cuttings are secured. Reports indicate that the average amount of labor required per acre in Kansas for four cuttings, including raking and stacking, is about 21 hours of man and 27 hours of horse labor; for 6 cuttings in California 40 hours of man labor, including irrigating, and 38 hours of horse labor.



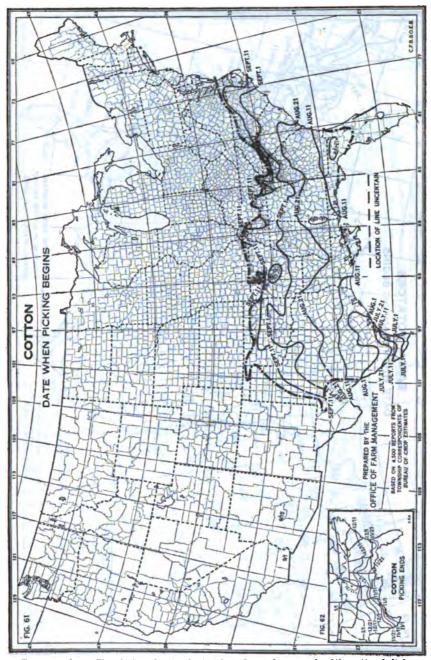
Figs. 55 and 56.—Cotton planting begins usually about the middle of March in extreme southern Texas and in northern Florida; about April 1 in the Black Waxy Prairie of Texas, in central Louisians, central Alabama, and central Georgia; and about April 21 along the northern margin of the cotton belt. Records from the Black Prairie of Texas show that cutting stalks, plowing or bedding, and harrowing requires, on the average, about 4 hours of man and 12 hours of horse or mule labor per acre, planting requires about 1 hour of man and 3 hours of horse labor, chopping out 11 hours of man labor, cultivating 7 hours of man and 14 hours of horse labor, picking about 32 hours of man labor, and hauling to the gin 2 hours of man and 3 hours of horse labor per acre, a total of approximately 57 hours of man labor and 32 hours of horse labor per acre.



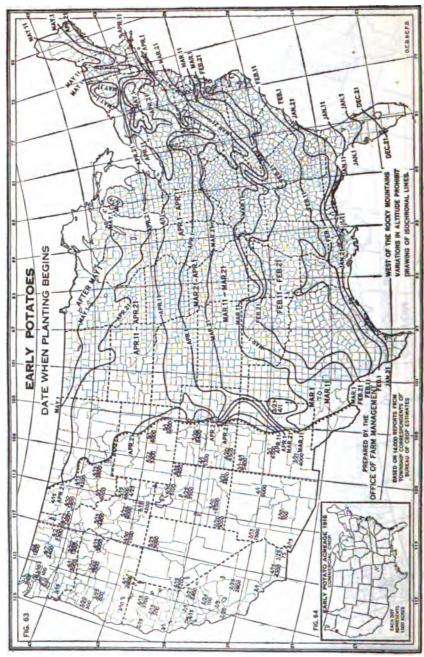
Figs. 57 and 58.—Cotton planting is general during the month of April. It ends usually by May 21. Records from nine localities in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Arkaneas show a requirement of 12 to 16 hours of man labor and 13 to 26 (average 20) hours of mule labor to prepare an acre of isand for cotton, 2 hours man labor and also of horse labor to plant an acre, 15 to 22 (average 17) hours labor both man and horse to harrow and cultivate, 13 to 30 (average 18) hours man labor up to chop and hoe, and from 45 to 90 hours of man labor per acre to pick the crop. In addition, an average of 4 hours of man labor and 8 hours of mule labor per acre are required to haul the crop to the gin and market. The amount of labor required varies with the character of the soil intensity of culture, and other factors, but in general the production of cotton east of Texas and Oklahoma requires from 90 to 150 hours of man labor and from 40 to 50 hours of mule labor per acre.



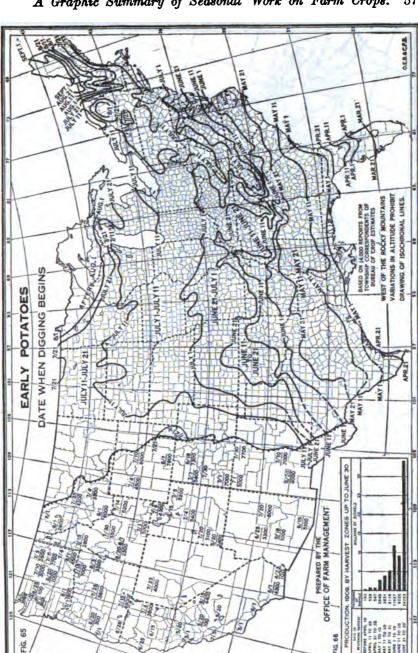
Figs. 59 and 60.—No other staple crop in the United States requires so much hand labor as does cotton. Next to picking, chopping out—that is, thinning the plants to a certain distance spart in the row—is the most laborious process in the production of cotton. This operation begins usually about a month after planting, or about May 1 in the southern portion of the cotton belt and May 21 along the northern margin, and ends four or five weeks later. Chopping out is done entirely by hand and requires in general from 13 to 25 hours of labor per acre in the eastern portion of the cotton belt, 18 hours being, perhaps, a fair average. In the Texas Black Waxy Prairie the reports indicate that only about 11 hours are required, on the average, for chopping out an acre of ootton.



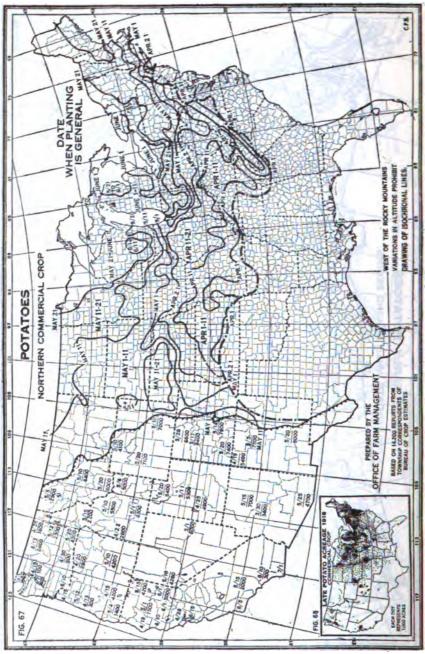
Figs. 61 and 62.—The picking of cotton begins along the southern margin of the cotton belt from South Central Texas eastward about August 11. By August 21 in the normal year picking has begun in the Black Prairie of Texas, in central Alabama, and throughout the Coastal Plain of Georgia, and by September II it has begun along the northern margin of the cotton belt. Picking continues throughout the fall, not being finished usually until December. The corner map showing the dates when picking ends is highly generalized, for on different farms in the same county the end of picking may be any time within a period of three months. In general, it is figured that a negro "hand" can pick 150 pounds of lint cotton in a day, so that the amount of time varies with the yield from 30 to 100 hours per acre. The average time required to pick an acre of cotton east of Texas is 50 hours, a greater amount of man labor than is required to produce 3 acres of corn in Illinois or 4 acres of wheat in Kansas.



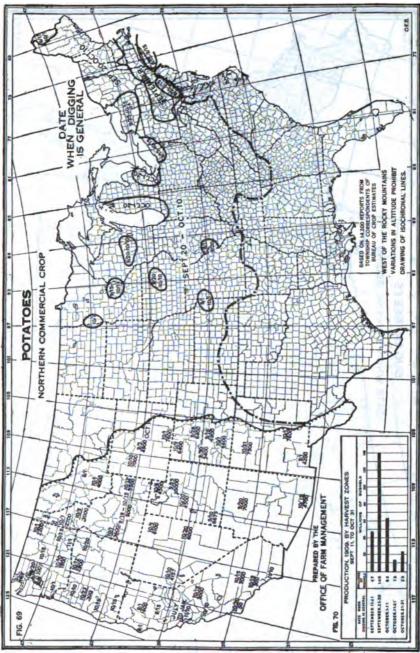
Figs. 63 and 64.—Early potatoes constitute but a small part of the potato crop of the United States, and their commercial production is developed principally in the South Atlantic and Gulf States, whence they are shipped, both by rail and boat, to the northern cities. The planting of early potatoes begins in southern Florida in November or December and lasts for two months or more, in central Florida planting begins about February 20, around Charleston February 1, in the Norfolk district March 1, and in the district around New York City about April 1. Early potatoes are not a commercial crop north of New York City, but a few are planted for home use. In northern Maine and northern Minnesota this planting begins acout May 11, and practically coincides with the planting of the late potato crop, which is the commercial crop in the Northern States. This map also shows perhaps better than a temperature map, the progress of the season northward in the United States.



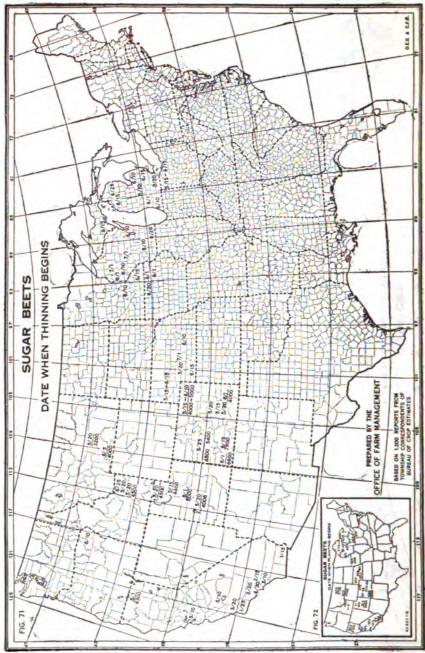
Figs. 65 and 66.—The digging of early potatoes begins in southern Florida from January to March, in the Hastings, Fla., district usually about April 11, and by May 1 has reached Charleston, S. C. It is in progress in the Norfolk, Va., district usually by June 1, and begins on Long Island about July 1. Since Charleston is located nearer the northern markets and has cheaper transportation rates than Hastings, when shipments begin from Charleston those from Hastings dwindle rapidly, and likewise when the Norfolk shipments begin the Charleston season soon ends. On Long Island, if prices are low the correct the crop is dug during July and sold as early potatoes, but if prices are low the potatoes are not dug until fall. The average amount of labor required to produce an acre of early potatoes in the Hastings, Fla., district is about 115 hours of man labor and 65 hours of horse labor. Of this amount 79 hours of man labor and 62 hours of horse labor.



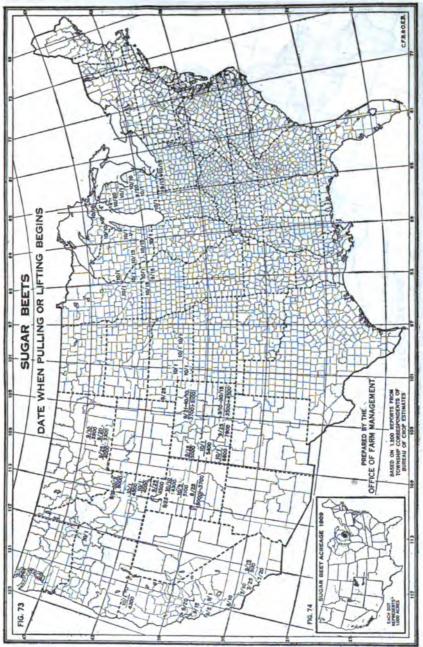
Figs. 67 and 68.—The late potato crop, constitutes probably 95 per cent of the total potato production of the United States. In practically all the large producing centers, except those in California, this crop is planted between April 1 and June 11. In Aroostook County, Me., planting is general usually about May 15, in western New York May 21 to June 1, in Michigan and central Wisconsin June 1 to 11, in the Minnesota and Colorado districts about May 15, but in the Stockton, Cal., district planting extends from March until July 1, while digging takes place from June 1 until February 15. In this region there is little seasonal change in temperature and the dates of planting and digging depend more on the market price than upon weather conditions. In the Maine, New York, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota districts, on the other hand, the necessity of digging the crop before the ground freezes limits to a period of a few weeks not only the digging but also the Planting of potatoes.



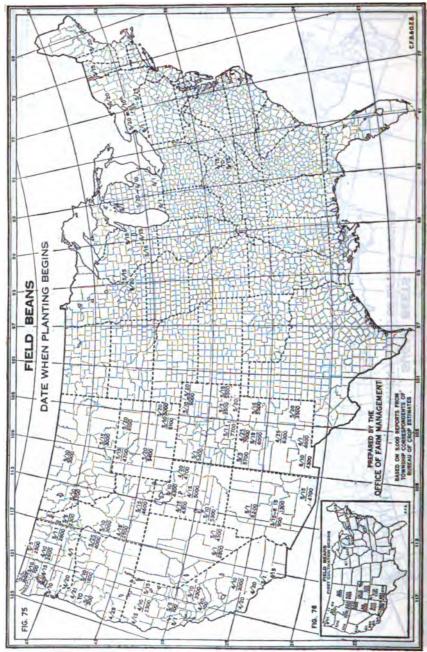
Figs. 69 and 70.—The digging of late potatoes in all the large producing districts, except those in California, occurs usually between September 15 and October 11. The earliest digging generally occurs around the large cities. Owing to the moderate autumn temperatures along the Lake shores in Michigan and New York digging may be delayed as late as the latter half of October. In the Wisconsin district several records indicate that plowing and preparing the ground for potatoes requires about 9 hours of man labor and 20 hours of horse labor, planting 8 hours of man and 2 hours of horse labor, cultivating, spraying, and hoeing 17 man and 11 horse hours, harvesting 35 man and 13 horse hours, while there were spent in marketing and miscellaneous work on the crop an average of 19 man and 34 horse hours—a total of 88 hours of man and 80 of horse labor per acre. Practically all this work in the Northern States is done by the farmers with the help during digging time of labor secured from near-by villages. secured from near-by villages.



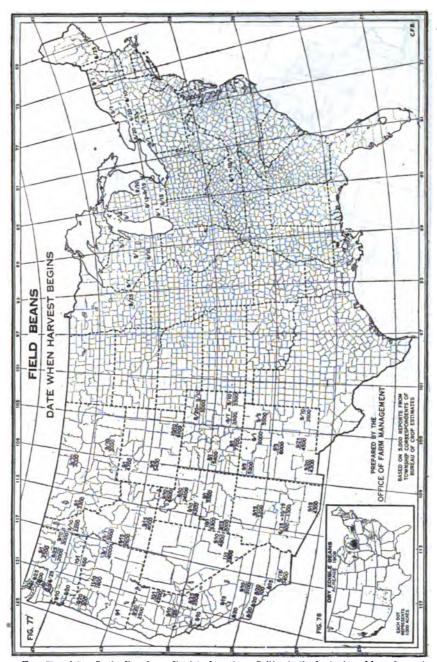
Figs. 71 and 72.—The chief sugar-beet districts of the United States are found in California, Colorado, Utah, Idaho, Michigan, and Wisconsin. In the Michigan and Wisconsin districts, and in adjacent States, sugar beets are cultivated under humid conditions, while in Colorado, Utah, Idaho, and other Western States this crop is produced under brigation. In California sugar beets are grown both with and without irrigation. There is a wide range in the dates when the operations on sugar beets are performed. Planting may begin in California as early as October and may continue as late as the following May. In the brigated districts of Colorado, Utah, and Idaho planting varies from the first of April till the middle of June. The bulk of the planting is done in this section from April 25 to May 28. This is true also of Michigan and Wisconsin. Thinning begins from three to four weeks after planting. The usual dates for blocking and thinning are given in the accompanying map.



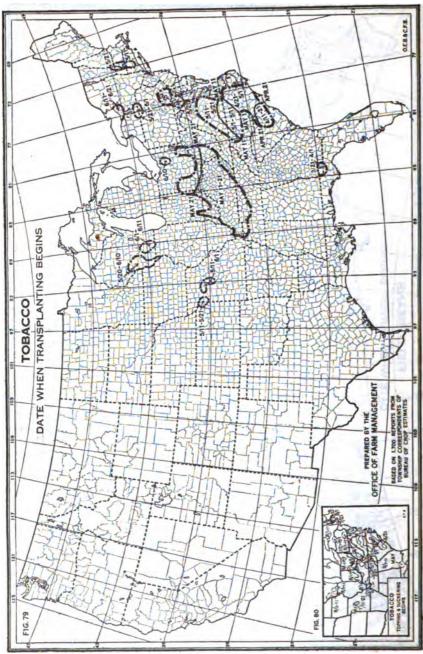
Figs. 73 and 74.—Pulling, or "lifting" sugar beets begins in southern California from the 10th to the 20th of July, and in the Santa Maria and Salinas valleys in August. It begins in late September or the first 10 days in October in Utah, Idaho, Colorado, and other western mountain districts. In Michigan and Ohio the dates are approximately the same. The labor engaged to do the blocking and thinning also performs usually this final hand operation of pulling and topping. Both operations require a large amount of hand labor. It is frequently designated "contract labor." The sugar companies usually make the necessary arrangements for bringing this labor into the district where it is needed. In the Middle West laborers for the thinning are obtained from large cities. A fair proportion of the hand work in southern Colorado and also in southern California is done by Marican labor. Farther north in California, also in northern Utah and southern Idaho, much of the hand work is done by Japanese.



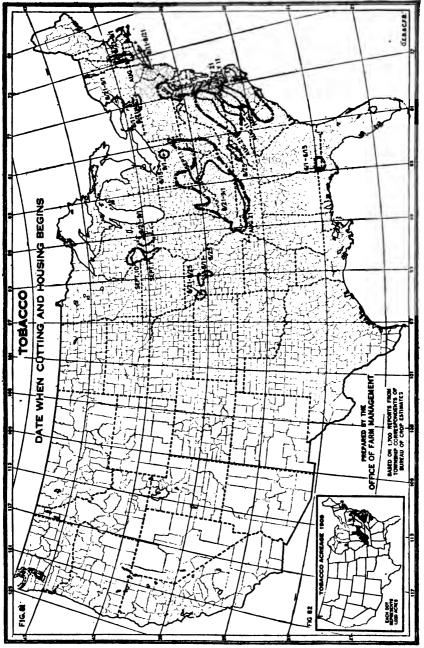
Figs. 75 and 78.—The chief centers of production of dry edible beans are New York, Michigan, and California. The acreage devoted to beans also has been expanding in New Mexico, Colorado, Washington and Idaho during the past two years. The Michigan and New York growers have confined their attention largely to the production of navy beans and kidney beans. In Colorado and New Mexico the Pinto or Mexican beanis grown to the exclusion of practically all other varieties. There are two distinct districts in California; one, located along the southern coast, produces lima beans exclusively; while in the other area, which includes the valleys and coast of central California, Pinka, Lady Washington, and navy beans are grown. The planting or seeding period in the lima bean district varies from April 15 to May 1. In the other district the planting begins between the 20th of April and the 1st of May. In New York, Michigan, and Wisconsin bean planting begins from May 15 to June 10, usually after corn planting.



Figs. 77 and 78.—In the lima bean district of southern California the beginning of bean harvest varies from August 15 to September 15. The beginning of harvest for those counties that produce Pinks, Lady Washington, and navy beans also varies from August 15 to September 15. The Colorado bean harvest begins the latter part of August or early in September. In the Plains area this work does not conflict appreciably with other farm operations, but in the irrigated districts the completion of the bean harvest may interfere to some extent with potato digging or in some cases with beet lifting. Michigan and New York bean growers begin harvesting from August 20 to September 20, the most common date being September 1. In the bean-growing counties of Michigan the crop is usually out of the way by the beginning of sugar-beet harvest. Beans and potatoes compete for labor at this season of the year in some New York districts. Corn harvest or silo filling may also demand attention at this time.

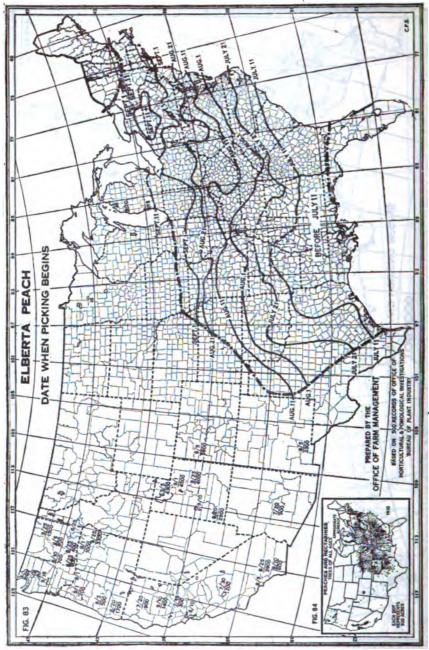


Figs. 79 and 80.—Plug and export tobacco (burley and heavy dark tobacco) are grown mainly on the heavy clay soils of the Ohio River valley. Tobacco for cigar wrappers, binders, and fillers is grown in scattered localities from western Florida to New England and Wisconsin, mainly, however, in the Connecticut valley of New England. Smoking and chewing tobacco is extensively grown in the Piedmont and coast regions of Virginia and the Carolinas, mostly on sandy loam soils. Tobacco is sown in bede early in the spring and later transplanted. In the more southern districts these beds are repeared from about February 1 to March 15, and in the more northern districts from about March 15 to A pril 1. Transplanting in Florida begins about the 21st of March and in the most northern localities in New York and Wisconsin it begins as late as June 10. In the central districts, where the bulk of the tobacco is grown, the transplanting begins about May 10 and continues up to about June 1.

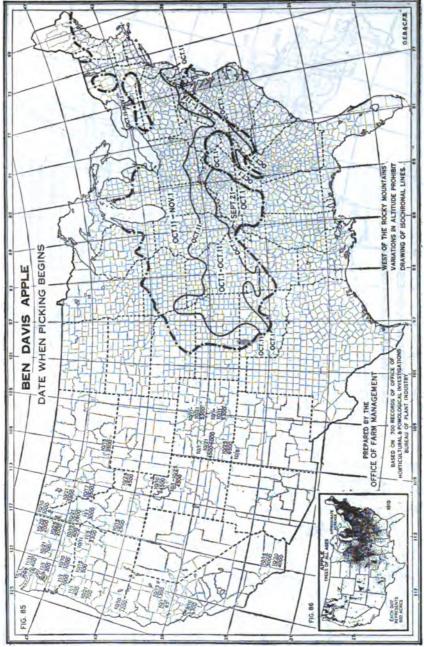


Figs. 81 and 82.—Tobacco is generally ready to cut and house about three months after it is transplanted. In the Sumner district in western Florida it is cut early in June, and along the coastal plain of the Carolinas as early as July 11. In all the other sections cutting and housing takes place from about August 20 to September 10. In the Ohio River valley, where about half of the tobacco of the United States is grown, summer drouths are frequent. However, if tobacco gets a good start after transplanting, it will stand practically dormant until rains come when it will speed up its growth and usually mature before frost. While it usually takes more labor to cut and house tobacco than the farmer and his family can supply, there is usually a sufficient amount of labor in the Community for this work. Much of the tobacco in the United States is grown by small tenant farmers who rent 5 to 10 acres on shares for a season, practically all the work being done by the tenant and his family.

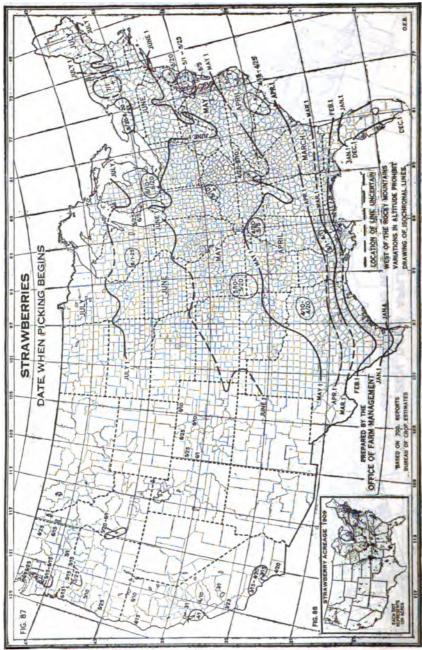
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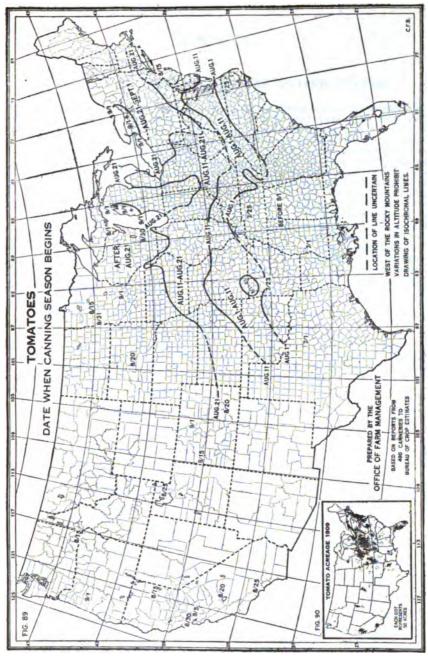
Figs. 83 and 84.—Picking the commercial crop of peaches begins in the important centers of central Georgia and northeastern Texas usually about July 10 and is over by the 20th, in the Ozarks picking begins between July 25 and August 15, in Delaware by mid-August, and in Michigan and New York from September 1 to 20. The picking season in these regions is usually about 10 to 15 days long. In California picking begins some years as early as July 15, but usually during August. Picking peaches commonly requires a considerable supply of transient labor. An average crop in central Georgia, 125 bushel crates per acre, requires about 50 hours of man labor; and a crop of 135 crates (or 270 baskets) in West Virginia requires about 45 hours of labor per acre. The map is based on about 500 records from commercial growers received during the 10 years 1902-1911 by H. P. Gould, of the Office of Horticultural and Pomological Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.



Figs. 85 and 86.—The Ben Davis apple is one of the most important commercial varieties and has a wide range. The date of its picking may, therefore, be considered representative of the date when extra labor is needed in handling the winter apple crop. Picking begins about September 21 along the southern margin of the apple belt and progresses northward until about a month later it is beginning in Michigan and New York. In large centers of apple production, especially in Missouri, Michigan, and New York, a considerable amount of transient labor is required to assist in this operation. In general for an 80-barrel crop in New York about 50 hours of labor are required for picking and 50 for sorting, packing, and hauling; and in Hood River, Oreg., 50 hours for picking, and 100 for sorting, packing, and hauling a crop of 200 packed boxes per scre. The map is based on about 700 records from commercial growers received during the 10 years 1902–1911 by H. P. Gould, of the Office of Horticultural and Pomological Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.



Figs. 87 and 88.—The principal centers of commercial strawberry production are shown on the map surrounded by circular lines, and dates are given inside each circle showing when picking usually begins in that district. The irregular lines extending from the Atlantic coast to the Great Flains mark off the zones when picking begins according to reports from scattered growers outs. de the important strawberry centers. Lines are drawn only for the first of each month as the dates are too variable to justify drawing lines for 10-day periods. Throughout most of Florida and along the Texas coast picking occurs during January and February. In southern Georgia and Mississippi picking begins about March 1, in the Carolina district about April 1, in the eastern Maryland and Delaware and Ozark districts early in May, and in western Michigan and New York about June 1. The map is based upon data collected from commercial growers by F. J. Blair, of the Bureau of Crop Estimates, and loaned to the Office of Farm Management.



Figs. 89 and 90.—Tomato-canning factories are confined practically to the central portion of the United States. The canning season begins about August 11 ns outhern Virginia, Tennessee, and northwestern Arkansas, and about a monthlater in the lake plains of New York, in western Michigan and Iowa. The canning season generally lasts from 6 to 10 weeks. Large quantities of tomatoes are grown in southern Florida and Texas and shipped fresh to the northern markets from December to June. Large quantities are also grown for consumption in the fresh state throughout the Northern States. The picking of tomatoes for domestic use or for shipment usually begins two to four weeks earlier than the beginning of the canning season. In Maryland and other Atlantic coast districts women and children from nearby cities are employed in picking tomatoes. The map is based upon data collected from 477 canning factories by F. J. Blair, of the Bureau of Crop Estimates.

APPENDIX.

AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES.1

College instruction in agriculture is given in the colleges and universities receiving the benefits of the acts of Congress of July 2, 1862, August, 30, 1890, and March 4, 1907, which are now in operation in all the States and Territories except Alaska. The total number of these institutions is 69, of which 67 maintain courses of instruction in agriculture. In 23 States and Porto Rico the agricultural colleges are departments of the State universities. In 17 States separate institutions having courses in agriculture are maintained for the colored race. All of the agricultural colleges for white persons and several of those for negroes offer four-year courses in agriculture and its related sciences leading to bachelor's degrees, and many provide for graduate study. About 60 of these institutions also provide special, short, or correspondence courses in the different branches of agriculture, including agronomy, horticulture, animal husbandry, poultry raising, cheese making, dairying, sugar making, rural engineering, farm mechanics, and other technical subjects. The agricultural experiment stations, with very few exceptions, are departments of the agricultural colleges. The total number of persons engaged in the work of education and research in the land-grant colleges and the experiment stations in 1917 was 8,861, the number of students (white) in interior courses in the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, 61,972, the total number of students (white) in the whole institutions, 122,053; the number of students (white) in the fouryear college courses in agriculture, 16,939; the total number of students in the institutions for negroes, 11,352, of whom 2,054 were enrolled in agricultural courses. With a few exceptions, each of these colleges offers free tuition to residents of the State in which it is located. In the excepted cases scholarships are open to promising and energetic students, and in all opportunities are found for some to earn part of their expenses by their own labor. The expenses are from \$125 to \$300 for the school year.

Agricultural colleges in the United States.

State or Territory.	Name of institution.	Location.	President.
Alabama	Alabama Polytechnic Institute	Auburn Tuskegee Institute	C. C. Thach. R. R. Moton.
	Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.	Normal	W. S. Buchanan.
Arizona	College of Agriculture of the University of Arizona.	Tueson	
Arkansas	College of Agriculture of the University of Arkansas.	Fayetteville	Martin Nelson.4
California	Branch Normal College	Pine Bluff Berkeley	J. G. Ish, jr. T. F. Hunt.
Colorado	The State Agricultural College of Colorado.	Fort Collins	C. A. Lory.
Connecticut Delaware	Connecticut Agricultural College Delaware College.	Storrs. Newark	S. C. Mitchell.
Florida	State College for Colored Students College of Agriculture of the University of Florida.	Dover	W. C. Jason. P. H. Rolfs.
	Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.	Tallahassee	N. B. Young.
Georgia	Georgia State College of Agriculture Georgia State Industrial College	A thens	A. M. Soule. R. R. Wright.
HawaiiIdaho	College of Hawaii	Honolulu	A. L. Dean.

¹ Including only institutions established under the land-grant act of July 2, 1862.

Not including students in correspondence courses and extension schools.

Principal.
Dean.

Agricultural colleges in the United States-Continued.

State or Territory.	Name of institution.	Location.	President.
Illinois	College of Agriculture of the University of Illinois.	Urbana	E. Davenport.
Indiana	School of Agriculture of Purdue Univer-	La Fayette	J. H. Skinner. ¹
Iowa	sity. Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Ames	R. A. Pearson.
Kansas Kentucky	Kansas State Agricultural College	Manhattan Lexington	W. M. Jardine. T. P. Cooper.
	The Kentucky Normal and Industrial	Frankfort	G. P. Russell.
Louisiana	tural and Machanical College	Baton Rouge	T. D. Boyd.
	Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College of the State of Louisiana.	Scotland Heights, Baton Rouge.	J. S. Clark,
Maine	College of Agriculture of the University of Maine.	Orono	L. S. Merrill.1
Maryland	Maryland State College of Agriculture Princess Anne Academy, Eastern Branch of the Maryland State College of Agri- culture.	College Park Princess Anne	A. F. Woods. T. H. Kigh. ²
Massachusetts	Massachusetts Agricultural Colleges	Amherst Boston	K. L. Butterfield.
Michigan Minnesota	Michigan Agricultural College	University Farm,	K. L. Butterfield. R. C. Maclaurin. F. S. Kedzie. R. W. Thatcher. ¹
Mississippi	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	St. Paul. Agricultural College.	W. H. Smith.
	Alcern Agricultural and Mechanical Col- lege.	Alcorn	L. J. Rowan,
Missouri	College of Agriculture of the University of Missouri.	Columbia	F. B. Mumford.1
-	School of Mines and Metallurgy of the University of Missouri	Rolla	
Montana	MontanaState College of Agriculture and	Jefferson City Bozeman	B. F. Allen. Jas. M. Hamilton.
Nebraska	College of Agriculture of the University of Nebraska.	Lincoln	E. A. Burnett. ¹
Nevada	College of Agriculture of the University of Nevada.	Reno	C. S. Knight. ¹
New Hampshire	New Hampshire College of Agriculture	Durham	R. D. Hetzel.
New Jersey	Rutgers College (the New Jersey State College for the Benefit of Agriculture	New Brunswick	W. H. S. Demarest,
New Mexico	and the Mechanic Arts). New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	State College	A. D. Crile.
New York North Carolina	New York State College of Agriculture The North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering	Ithaca West Raleigh	A. R. Mann. ¹ W. C. Riddick.
North Dakota	culture and Engineering. Negro Agricultural and Technical College North Dakota Agricultural College	Greensboro	J. B. Dudley. E. F. Ladd.
Ohio	North Dakota Agricultural College College of Agriculture of Ohio State University .	Columbus	Alfred Vivian,1
Oklahoma	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Stillwater	J. W. Centwell.
Oregon	Agricultural and Normal University Oregon State Agricultural College The School of Agriculture of the Penn-	Langston	I. E. Page. W. J. Kerr. R. L. Watts.
Pennsylvania	gylygnia State College.	State College	
Porto Rico	College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts of the University of Porto Rico, Rhode Island State College	Mayaguez	R. S. Garwood.1
Rhode Island South Carolina	The Clemson Agricultural College of South Carolina.	Kingston Clemson College	Howard Edwards. W. M. Riggs.
	State Agricultural and Mechanical Col- lege of South Carolina.	Orangeburg	R. S. Wilkinson.
South Dakota	South Dakota State College of Agriculture	Brookings	E. C. Perish
Tennessee	College of Agriculture, University of Ten- nessee.	Knoxville	H. A. Morgan. ¹
	Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State Normal School.	Nashville	W. J. Hale.
Texas	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	College Station	W. B. Bizzell.
	Prairie View State Normal and Indus- trial College.	Prairie View	I. M. Terrell.2

¹ Dean. ² Principal.

^{*} Does not maintain courses in agriculture.

Agricultural colleges in the United States-Continued,

State or Territory.	Name of institution.	Location.	President.
Utah Vermont	The Agricultural College of Utah College of Agriculture of the University of Vermont.	Logan Burlington	E. G. Peterson. J. L. Hills.
Virginia	The Virginia Agricultural and Mechani- cal College and Polytechnic Institute. The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.	Blacksburg	J. D. Eggleston, J. E. Gregg. ²
Washington West Virginia	State College of Washington	Pullman Morgantown	E. O. Holland. J. L. Coulter.
Wisconsin	The West Virginia Collegiate Institute College of Agriculture of the University of Wisconsin.	Institute Madison	Byrd Prillerman H. L. Russell. ¹
Wyoming	College of Agriculture, University of Wyoming.	Laramie	A. D. Faville.

¹ Dean.

² Principal.

AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATIONS.

Alabama (College), Auburn: J. F. Duggar.
Alabama (Canebrake), Uniontown: J. M.
Burgess.
Alabama (Tuskegee), Tuskegee Institute:
G. W. Carver.
Alaska, Sitka (Rampart, Kodiak, Fairbanks, and Matanuska): C. G. Georgeson.
Arkansas, Fayetteville: Martin Nelson.
California, Berkeley: T. F. Hunt.
Colorado, Fort Collins: C. P. Gillette.
Connecticut (State), New Ilaven.
Connecticut (Storrs), Storrs
Delaware, Newark: Harry Hayward.
Florida, Gainesville: P. H. Rolfs.
Georgia, Experiment: J. D. Price.
Guam: C. W. Edwards.
Hawaii (Federal), Honolulu: J. M. Westgate!
Hawaii (Sugar Planters'), Honolulu: H. P.
Agee.
Idaho, Moscow: J. S. Jones.
Illinois, Urbana: E. Davenport.
Indiana, La Fayette: C. G. Woodbury.
Iowa, Ames: C. F. Curtiss.
Kansas, Manhattan: W. M. Jardine.
Kentucky, Lexington: T. P. Cooper.
Louislana (Sugar), New Orleans.
Louislana (Rorth), Calhoun
Rouge.
Louislana (Rorth), Calhoun
Louislana (Rorth), Calhoun
Louislana (Rorth), Calhoun
Massachusetts, Amherst: W. P. Brooks.
Michigan, East Lansing: R. S. Shaw.
Minnesota, University Farm, St. Paul:
R. W. Thatcher.
Mississippi, Agricultural College: E. R.
Lloyd.
Missouri (College), Columbia: F. B. Mumford.

Missouri (Fruit), Mountain Grove: Paul Evans.

Montana, Bozeman: F. B. Linfield.
Nebraska, Lincoln: E. A. Burnett.
Nevada, Reno: S. B. Doten.
New Hampshire, Durham: J. C. Kendall.
New Jersey (College), New
Brunswick.
New Jersey (State), New
Brunswick.
New Jersey (State), New
Brunswick.
New Mexico, State College: Fabian Garcia.
New York (State), Geneva: W. H. Jordan.
New York (Cornell), Ithaca: A. B. Mann.
North Carolina, Raleigh and West Baleigh:
B. W. Kligore.
North Dakota, Agricultural College: L.
Van Es.
North Dakota, Agricultural College: L.
Ohio, Wooster: C. E. Thorne.
Oklahoma, Stillwater: H. G. Knight.
Oregon, Corvallis: A. B. Cordley.
Pennsylvania, State College: R. L. Watts.
Pennsylvania (Institute of Animal Nutrition), State College: H. P. Armsby.
Porto Rico (Federal), Mayaguez: D. W.
May.
Porto Rico (Federal), Mayaguez: D. W.
May.
Porto Rico (Insular), Rio Pedras: E. Colón.
Rhode Island. Kingston: B. L. Hartwell.
South Carolina, Clemson College: H. W.
Barre.
South Dakota, Brookings: J. W. Wilson.
Tennessee, Knoxville: H. A. Morgan.
Texas, College Station: B. Youngblood.
Utah, Logan: F. S. Harris.
Vermont, Burlington: J. L. Hills.
Virginia (College), Blacksburg: A. W.
Drinkard, Jr.
Virginia (Truck), Norfolk: T. C. Johnson.
Washington, Pullman: George Severance.4
West Virginia, Morgantown: J. L. Coulter.
Wisconsin, Madison: H. L. Russell.
Wyoming, Laramie: A. D. Faville.

STATE OFFICIALS IN CHARGE OF AGRICULTURE.

Alabama: Commissioner of Agriculture,
Montgomery.
Alaska: Agronomist in charge of Experiment Station, Sitka.
Arlzona: Secretary of State, Phoenix.
Arkansas: Commissioner of Bureau of
Mines, Manufactures, and Agriculture,
Little Rock.

California: Secretary of the California State Agricultural Society. Sacramento. Colorado: Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture, Fort Collins. Connecticut: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Hartford. Delaware: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Dover.

¹ Agronomist in charge.

Address: Island of Guam, via San Francisco.

Animal husbandman in charge.

Acting director.

Florida: Commissioner of Agriculture, Tallahassee Georgia: Commissioner of Agriculture, Atlanta,
Guam: Agronomist in charge of Experiment Station, Guam.
Hawaii: Secretary of Territorial Board of Agriculture, Honolulu.
Idaho: Superintendent of Department of Idano: Superintendent of Department of Farm Markets, Bolse.
Illinois: Director of Department of Agriculture, Springfield.
Indiana: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Indianapolis.
Iowa: Secretary of Department of Agriculture, Des Moines.
Kansas: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture. Topeka. culture, Topeka. Kentucky: Commi Frankfort. Commissioner of Agriculture, Louisiana: Commissioner of A and Immigration, Baton Rouge Agriculture Maine: Commissioner of Agriculture, Augusta.

Maryland: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Kensington.

Massachusetts: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Boston.

Michigan: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, East Lansing.

Minnesota: Secretary of State, St. Paul.

Mississippi: Commissioner of Agriculture and Commerce, Jackson.

Missouri: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Jefferson City.

Montana: Commissioner of Agriculture and Publicity, Helena.

Nebraska: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Lincoln. gusta. riculture, Lincoln.

Nevada: Secretary of State, Carson City.

New Hampshire: Commissioner of Agriculture, Concord.

New Jersey: Secretary of Department of Agriculture, Trenton. Alabama: J. F. Duggar, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn.

Arizona: E. P. Taylor. College of Agriculture, University of Arizona, Tucson.

Arkansas: W. C. Lassetter, College of Agriculture, University of Arkansas, Fayatterille. etteville.

New Mexico: State Land Commissioner, Santa Fe. New York: Commissioner of Agriculture, New York: Commissioner of Agriculture, Albany.
North Carolina: Commissioner of Agriculture, Raleigh.
North Dakota: Commissioner of Agriculture and Labor, Bismarck.
Ohio: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture. Columbus. Oklahoma: Commissioner of Agriculture, Oklahoma. Oregon: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Salem.
Pennsylvania: Secretary of Department of Agriculture, Harrisburg.
Philippine Islands: Director of Agriculture, Manila. Porto Rico: Commissioner of Agriculture and Labor, San Juan.

Rhode Island: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Providence.

South Carolina: Commissioner of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industries, Columbial bia. South Dakota: Commissioner of Immigration, Pierre.
Tennessee: Commissioner of Agriculture, Nashville. Texas: Commissioner of Agriculture, Austin. Utah: Secretary of State, Salt Lake City. Vermont: Commissioner of Agriculture, St. Albans. Virginia: Commissioner of Agriculture and Immigration, Richmond. Washington: Commissioner of Agriculture, Olympia.

West Virginia: Commissioner of Agriculture, Charleston.

Wisconsin: Commissioner of Agriculture,

STATE OFFICERS IN CHARGE OF COOPERATIVE AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION WORK.

Madison.

California: W. T. Clarke, College of Agriculture, University of California, Berkeley. Colorado: H. T. French, State Agricultural College of Colorado, Fort Collins. Connecticut: H. J. Baker, Connecticut Ag-ricultural College, Storrs. Delaware: H. Hayward, Delaware College, Delaware: H. Dayware,
Newark.
Florida: P. H. Rolfs, College of Agriculture, University of Florida, Gainesville.
Georgia: J. Phil Campbell, Georgia State
College of Agriculture, Athens.
Idaho: L. W. Fluharty, The Statehouse, Bolse.
Illinois: W. F. Handschin, College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, Urbana.
Indiana: G. I. Christie, Purdue University, Indiana: G. 1. Caristie, Furdue University,
La Fayette.
Iowa: B. K. Bliss, Iowa State College of
Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames.
Kansas: E. C. Johnson, Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan.
Kentucky: Fred Mutchler, College of Agriculture of the University of Kentucky,
I avinotan

Lexington.
Louisiana: W. R. Perkins, Louisiana State
University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Baton Rouge,
Maine: L. S. Merrill, College of Agriculture, University of Maine, Orono.
Maryland: T. B. Symons, Maryland State
College of Agriculture, College Park,

Lexington.

Massachusetts: W. D. Hurd, Massachusetts
Agricultural College, Amberst,
Michigan: R. J. Baldwin, Michigan Agricultural College, East Lansing.
Minnesota: A. D. Wilson, College of Agriculture, University of Minnesota, University Farm, St. Paul.
Mississippi: E. R. Lloyd, Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural College.

Wyoming: Secretary of State, Cheyenne.

cultural and mecuanical cultural College.

Missouri: A. J. Meyer. College of Agriculture, University of Missouri, Columbia.

Montana: F. S. ('coley, Montana State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts,

lege of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts,
Bozeman.
Nebraska: C. W. Pugsley, College of Agriculture, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
Nevada: C. A. Norcross. College of Agriculture, University of Nevada, Reno.
New Hampshire: J. C. Kendall, New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Durham.
New Jersey: Alva Agee, Rutgers College,
New Reinnawick

New Jersey: Alva Agee, Rutgers College,
New Brunswick.
New Mexico: A. C. Cooley, New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arta,
State College.
New York: A. R. Mann, New York State
College of Agriculture. Ithaca.
North Carolina: B. W. Kilgore, North
Carolina State College of Agriculture
and Engineering, West Raleigh.
North Dakota: G. W. Randlett, North Dakota Agricultural College, Agricultural
(College.

College Of Agricultural College of Agriculture, Ohlo State University, Columbus.
Oklahoma: J. A. Wilson, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater.

Oregon: O. D. Center, Oregon State Agricultural College, Corvallis.
Pennsylvania: M. S. McDowell; Pennsylvania State College, State College.
Bhode Island: A. E. Stene, Rhode Island State College, Kingston.
South Carolina: W. W. Long, Clemson Agricultural College of South Carolina, Clemson College.
South Dakota: C. Larsen, South Dakota State College, Brookings.
Tennessee: C. A. Keffer, College of Agriculture, University of Tennessee, Knoxville. ville. Texas: Clarence Ousley, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Sta-

tion.

Utah: J. T. Caine, 3d, Agricultural College of Utah, Logan.
Vermont: Thos. Bradlee, University of
Vermont and State Agricultural College, Burlington. irginia: J. M. Jones, Virginia Polytechnic

Virginia :

Virginia: J. M. Jones, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg. Washington: W. S. Thornber, State Col-lege of Washington, Pullman. West Virginia: C. R. Titlow, College of Agriculture, West Virginia University, Morgantown. Wisconsin: K. L. Hatch, College of Agri-culture, University of Wisconsin, Madi-

Wyoming: A. E. Bowman, College of Agri-culture, University of Wyoming, Laramie.

NATIONAL AND STATE LIVE-STOCK ASSOCIATIONS AND ALLIED ORGANIZATIONS.

During the past few years numerous requests from many sources have been received by the Bureau of Animai Industry for a list of the various national and State live-stock and live-stock breeders' associations. Owing to the frequency of these petitions the Animal Husbandry Division of the bureau sent letters of inquiry to State agricultural colleges, experiment stations, live-stock associations and individuals with the object of securing a list of this kind. Many replies were received to these inquiries, but it is regrettable that a considerable number of the letters either met with no response, were returned unclaimed or, as was the case in a number of instances, those receiving the communication were unable to furnish definite information as to such organizations in their State, or to state where the desired information could be Therefore, it is not claimed that this list is complete, but that it is sufficiently large to be considered fairly representative of these classes of organizations.

No effort was made to secure a list of county or community organizations, as to have included all such would make a record of too great length to be shown in a pamphlet of respectable size. Information regarding county associations can, no doubt, be secured in most cases from the several State asso-

It is believed this list represents the only record of its kind that can be considered up-to-date so far, at least, as it covers the organizations named.

The value and necessity for such a record should be apparent. The close linking of the live-stock industry with our national prosperity places an added value on such a record, particularly at this time. The conditions confronting the country to-day and the immense value and great importance of the livestock industry in all its phases, together with the urgent necessity for improved and increased production are of such moment that it has been considered advisable to place this list, however incomplete it may be, before the public with the hope that its circulation will not only aid in the formation of similar associations in States where they do not now exist, but that it will be used as the means to further the efforts now being made to increase the quality and quantity of the Nation's resources along every line here represented.

In view of the fact that there are undoubtedly some State associations of which definite information was not received, the Bureau of Animal Industry will appreciate receiving notice of any that do not appear here. It will also be pleased to receive information of the organization of new State associations of the classes represented.

Owing to the fact that the annual meetings of these organizations are held at different times during the year it is very probable that the names and addresses of some of the officials given will be found incorrect at the time of the distribution of this pamphlet. It will be appreciated, therefore, if any changes in the names and addresses of the officials are reported to the bureau in order that its record may be kept up-to-date.

The plan adopted in listing these associations is as follows: the associations of a national character have been given at the head of the list and these are followed by the State organizations. The States are given in alphabetical order and under each State there is given first, the general State association, if such exists, which is followed by organizations of horse breeders, dairy associations, cattle breeders, sheep breeders, and swine breeders, in the order named.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

Name of association.	President.	Address.	Secretary.	Address.
American National Live Stock Association. National Dairy Union. Southern Cattlemen's Association. American Poultry Association. National Wool Growers' Association. National Wool Growers' Association. National Mohair Growers' Association.	I. T. Pryor N. P. Hull F. H. Jones W. M. McFadden E. E. Richards F. J. Hagenbarth U. S. Grant	San Antor Larising, Livingstor Union Sto III. Cedar Rai Salt Lake Dallas, Or	T. W. Tomlinson. W. T. Creasy. R. M. Gow. J. Doty. E. B. Campbell. B. W. McClure. F. O. Landrum.	515 Cooper Building, Denver, Colo. Catawissa, Pa. Little Rock, Ark. Bhenandosh, Iowa. Mansfield, Ohio. Sali Lake City, Utah. Leguna, Tex.
	NATIONAL PO	NATIONAL POULTRY ASSOCIATIONS.		
American Buttercup Club. American Guinsa Club. American Buff Plymouth Rock Club. The American Columbian Plymouth Rock Club.	Waldron Harrington. Geo. L. Rockwell. W. S. Rebison. J. Fred Walthers.	Oxford, N. Y. Ridgenfeld, Comn. Fayette, Mo. 508 Transverse Avonue, Mount Oliver Station, Pittsburgh, Pa.	Philip C. Gorl Edw. R. Flint Thomas B. Elliot T. J. Enslin	
American Java Association American Blue Orpington Club American Bulf Wyandotte Club. The Blue Andalusian Club of America The Bulf Minores Club of America	A. E. Huber Mrs. H. Hooker Andrew Riddell E. D. Bird S. O. Lindgreen	Newpoint, Ind. South Habley, Mass. Greenwich, No. Greenwich, Com. Kingsburg, Cal.	Betn W. Morton. Miss Nickerson. Andrew C. De Hass. Walter J. Costes. W. P. Williams	Loor 1st, Albany, N. Y. Loominster, Mass. Middletown, N. Y. East Calais, Vt. Ing. Weet Fifty-eccond Street, Los Anordes, Col.
Hamburg Fanclers Club. International S. C. Black Minorca Club	John Lowell Dr. E. D. Græger	38 Equitable Building, Boston, Mass. Canton, Ill.	Robert C. Morse Junnus Johnson	19 Congress Street, Boston, Mass. 6001 Harrison Road, Kansas City,
National Bantam Association	Geo. L. Young	411 East Seventh Street,	J. Hart Welch	Douglaston, L. I., N. Y.
National American Dominique Club. National Game Club. National Rose Comb Orpington Club. National Rose Comb White Orpington Club. National Columbian Wyandotte Club. National Bronze Turkey Club.	A. Q. Carter R. H. Roberts H. C. Faulkner C. M. Streby Richard G. Harwood James Miles W. D. Farrand	Chinksh	C. W. Besse E. J. W. Dietz E. M. Mengell. A. H. White Chas. H. Moreux. Chas. E. Bird. R. W. Van Hoesen.	Jefferson, Me. Ads Cornella Avenue, Chloago, Ill. Ads Cornella Avenue, Chloago, Ill. Byreause, N. Y. Luverne, Minn. Meyerselde, Pa. Franklinville, N. Y.

TATE ASSOCIATIONS

Abbama Live Stock Association Central Alabama Dairy Association Alabama Hereford Cattle Breeders' Association Alabama Shorthorn Breeders' Association Southern Shorthorn Breeders' Association Arizona Dairymen's Association	Dr. C. A. Cary B. F. Miller N. J. Bell John J. King J. A. Pettis Frank R. Sanders	Auburn, Ala Montgomery, Ala. Montgomery, Ala. Consul, Ala. Dawson, Ga. Chandler, Ariz	Geo. S. Templeton. L. L. Gilbert. R. J. Mockinzie. J. M. Mockinzie. T. J. Wood.	Mobile, Ala. Monigomery, Ala. Gastonhurg, Ala. Greenville, Ala. Troy, Ala. University of Arizons, Tucson,
Arizona Cattle Growers' Association Arizona Holstein Breeders' Association Arizona Wool Growers' Association Arizonas Angus Breeders' Association Northwest Arizansas Shorthorn Breeders' Association California Druft Horse Breeders' Association Pacific Coast Trotting Horse Breeders' Association	L. L. Harmon E. A. Sawyer W. L. Bants Culver Crowder E. W. Westgate E. P. Headd	A RESEA	Sam B. Bradner F. R. Sanders L. F. Verkamp R. L. Block Art T. Lewis R. P. Royce F. W. Kelley	SUBJEE
North California Guernsey Cattle Club California Holstein Friesian Association California Servey Breeders' Association California Swine Breeders' Association Colorado State Dairymen's Association Western Hereford Breeders' Association Western Stroken Breeders' Association Western Shorthorn Breeders' Association Colorado Swine Breeders' Association Colorado Swine Breeders' Association Colorado Swine Breeders' Association Colorado Swine Breeders' Association Colorado Swine Breeders' Association Colorado Swine Breeders' Association Colorado Swine Breeders' Association Colorado Swine Breeders' Association Colorado Astoria Archite Breeders' Association				
Connecticut Dairymen's Association. New Engind Devon Breeders' Association. Connecticut Holstein Friestan Breeders' Association. Connecticut Blobgein Friestan Breeders' Club Connecticut Blobgein Friestan Breeders' Club Connecticut Blobg Breeders' Association Delaware Holstein Friestan Breeders' Association	Charles D. L. D. L	FM 192F FIF	IDHEHH OF	THE PARTY OF
Florida State Live Stock Association. Florida State Live Stock Association. Georgia Dairy and Live Stock Association. Georgia Berichted Cattle Breeders' Association. Georgia Berichte Association. Georgia Berichte Association. Netthwest Live Stock Association. Methwest Live Stock Association. Idaho Cattle & Horse Growers' Association. Idaho State Palrymen's Association. Idaho State Poland China Association.	Dr. J. G. Du Puis. A. S. Chamblee Jas. T. Anderson B. J. Willingham J. W. Hodge. Thos. F. Wren. B. J. Iddings. Glay Vance. Gustave Kunze. U. L. Wilson.	w meer Park, Fin. Lemon City, Fin. Bartow, Ga. Macon, Ga. Commerce, Ga. Eko, Ga. Moseow, Idaho. Chilly, Idaho. Buhi, Idaho. Greenleaf, Idaho.	M. A. Milan Milton F. Jarnagh. H. P. Redwine. T. G. Chnstain. T. G. Chnstain. J. P. Peacock. Faul Cagatone. E. J. Fledistead. L. E. Dillingham. O. P. Hendersbott.	Miami, Fla. Miami, Fla. Athens, Ga. Athens, Ga. Atlanta, Ga. Coetresville, Ga. Coetresville, Ga. Lewiston, Idabo., Boise, Idabo., Boise, Idabo. Boise, Idabo. Caldwell, Idabo.

STATE ASSOCIATIONS—Continued.

Name of association.	President.	Address.	Secretary.	Address.
State Live Stock Association of Illinois Illinois Live Stock Breeders' Association Illinois Jack, Jennet, and Mule Breeders' Association Illinois State Datryment's Association Illinois Cattle Feeders' Association Illinois Cattle Feeders' Association Illinois State Breeders' Association Illinois Street Breeders' Association Illinois Street Breeders' Association Illinois Sheep Breeders' Association Illinois Sheep Breeders' Association Illinois Sheep Breeders' Association Illinois Sheep Breeders' Association Indiana Brief Horse Breeders' Association Indiana Brief Horse Breeders' Association Indiana Guerney Breeders' Association Indiana Guerney Breeders' Association Indiana Guerney Breeders' Association Indiana Holstein Freegers' Association Indiana Blotsein Freegers' Association Indiana Blotsein Freegers' Association Indiana Blotsein Association Indiana Briefort Association Indiana Berkshire Association Indiana Berkshire Association Indiana Berkshire Association Indiana Berkshire Association Indiana Berkshire Association Indiana Berkshire Association Indiana Berkshire Association Indiana Berkshire Association Indiana Berkshire Association	J. G. Imboden J. E. Meharry F. S. Haner F. S. Haner F. S. Harb F. J. P. Mason J. P. Mason J. W. Kirkton J. W. Kirkton J. W. Kirkton J. W. Kirkton W. S. O'Hair W. S. O'Hair W. S. O'Hair F. Shevet F. Shevet F. Shevet F. C. Andrew W. H. Seymour C. L. Meharry W. H. Seymour C. L. Meharry W. H. Seymour C. L. Meharry W. H. Sewder T. M. Harlen J. A. Driscoll H. E. Harlen J. A. Driscoll H. E. Harlen J. C. Andrew J. G. Andrew J. G. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. C. Andrew J. J. Sarker J. Barker E. J. Barker T. W. Logan	Decetur, III. Toulon, III. Toulon, III. Bharysburile, III. Bharysburile, III. Braysburile, III. Gridley, III. Mortley, III. Alton, III. Stohniegon, III. Tiskilwe, III. Noy, III. Noy, III. Tiskilwe, III. Noy, III. Tiskilwe, III.	Jay B. Brown A. T. Peters. F. F. Frichard A. F. F. Hughes A. F. F. Hughes John R. Jones H. P. Rusk B. M. Davison Bidney B. Smith R. Coffey W. Caffey W. Caffey W. Caffey G. Start Heary Andrews C. G. Start H. H. Skinner C. R. George C. G. Start W. W. Schoose H. F. Allen C. A. Kurtes Millord Evans F. C. Beall H. E. Allen C. A. Kurtes C. A. Murtes C. A. Murtes E. K. Morris E. K. Morris	Union Stock Yards, Chicago, Ill. Ottawa, Ill. Ottawa, Ill. Springfald, Ill. Springfald, Ill. Springfald, Ill. Lorbana, Ill. Springfald, Ill. Do. Henry, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. Edelstein, Ill. La Fayette, Ind. La Fayette, Ind. La Fayette, Ind. La Fayette, Ind. La Fayette, Ind. La Fayette, Ind. La Fayette, Ind. Illa Fayette, Ind. Illa Fayette, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Illa Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Illa Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ind. Edelstein, Ill. Edelste
Indiana Hampshire Swine Breeders' Association Indiana State Poland Chrina Breeders' Association. Iowa Draft Horse Breeders' Association. Iowa State Dairy Association. Iowa Guerracy Breeders' Association. Iowa Hereders' Association. Iowa Hotselm' Priesta Breeders' Association. Iowa Hotselm' Priesta Breeders' Association. Interstate Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Interstate Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Interstate Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Interstate Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Iowa Shopshire Association. Iowa Shurpshire Association. Iowa Chester Breeders' Association.	John R. Lewis R. Glaycomb Wm. Crownover W. B. Quarton Geo, H. Burne H. J. Sofmidt R. W. Cassidy P. M. Schooley F. T. Cass Frank Towne T. B. McMillan Will Middled Carlos Fawcett F. H. Skemith G. C. Evane	Renselaer, Ind. Portrand, Ind. Hudson, Jown. Algona, Jown. Mount Vernon, Iowa. Codar Falls, Jowa. Whiting, Jowa. Waterloo, Jowa. Rock Rapids, Jowa. Iamesboro, Jowa. Rock Rapids, Jowa. Springdale, Jowa. Springdale, Jowa. Orlent, Jowa. North English, Jowa.	M. S. Gardiner Parry Johnson G. E. O'Brien G. E. O'Brien E. W. Risphenson E. B. Karrie F. L. Karr F. E. Karrien F. C. Barrey D. A. Isy U. G. Warner M. G. Thornburg M. G. Thornburg M. P. Hancher	

f. Louis-	Rouge,	y, Baton	Rouge,	RB. Misb.
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State House, Topelra, Kans. Topeka, Kans. Manhattan, Kans. Do. Do. Comister, Kans. Comister, Kans. Heriugton, Kans. Manhattan, Kans. Darville, Kans. Valley Falls, Kans. Lecington, Ky. Do. Do. Windnester, Ky. Extington, Ky. Do. Do. Do. Lexington, Ky. Extington, Ky. Farmers', Home Journal,	University Station, Baton Rouge,	Louisiana State University, Baton Rouse, La.	University Station, Baton Rouge,	Baton, I.d. Baton, Rouge, I.d. Augusta, Mo. Augusta, Mo. Augusta, Mo. Cornish, Mo. Cornish, Mo. College Park, Md. Lutherville, Md. Amherst, Mass. Barre, Mass. Barre, Mass. Barre, Mass. Barre, Mass. Do. Do. Lepper, Mich. Do, Lepper, Mich. Bad Axe, Mich. Bad Axe, Mich. Bed Axe, Mich. Bed Axe, Mich. Bed Sxe, Mich. Bed Sxe, Mich. Bed Sxe, Mich. Bed Sxe, Mich. Bed Sxe, Mich. Bed Sxe, Mich. Bed Sxe, Mich. Br. F. D. No. 8, Kalamazoo, M. Grand Ledge, Mich.
State House, Top Topela, Kans. Manhattan, Kans. Do. Do. Do. Conister, Kans. Herington, Kans. Manhattan, Kans. Manhattan, Kans. Valley Falls, Kar. Valley Falls, Kar. Universille, Kyr. Lexington, Ky. Do. Do. Do. Winchester, Ky. Sharpsburg, Ky. Lexington, Ky. Lexington, Ky. Lexington, Ky.	University	Louisiana Str	Universi	Ruston, Ld., Brann Rouge, Lorono, Me. Augusta, Me. Augusta, Me. Augusta, Me. Cornish, Me. Proplam, Me. Mcchanlo, Falls, College Park M. Lutherville, Md. Amherst, Mass. Bast, Lansing, M. Do. Do., Mch. Covid, Mich. Bast, Mch. Oyde, Mich. Bast, Mch. Okemo, Mich. Best, Mch. Okemo, Mich. Best, Do. No. 4, E. B. F. D. No. 6, E. B. F. D. S. F. F. D. S. F. F. D. S. F. F. F. D. S. F. F. D. S. F. F. D. S. F. F. F. D. S. F. F. F. D. S. F. F. F. D. S. F. F. F. F. D. S. F. F. F. F. F. F. F. F. F. F. F. F. F.
J. H. Mercer Geo. W. Berry C. W. McCampbell J. B. Fitch Jas. W. Linn W. A. Howard W. A. Howard W. H. Mott W. H. Mott A. M. Paterson A. M. Paterson A. M. Paterson A. M. Paterson J. J. B. Shropshire H. S. Anderson J. W. Williams J. J. Hooper J. S. Lindsay E. S. Good Hubert Vresland	R. B. Bentley (acting)	J. M. Cadwallader	R. H. Benton, fr	O. G. Hankins E. L. Jordan E. W. Morton E. W. Morton Beroels Brown John A. Ness Stephen J. Adams H. Shaw C. R. Leland G. R. Halbad W. P. B. Lockwood W. P. B. Lockwood W. P. B. Lockwood R. M. Handy G. A. Brown R. R. Frary Ward Hathway C. G. Parmal Ward Hathway C. G. Parmal Fred R. McCarry Charles Dankie E. J. Peabody E. J. Peabody
Lawrence, Kans. Carbondale, Kans. Sterling, Kans. Hutchinson, Kans. Hutchinson, Kans. Hutchinson, Kans. Waldron, Kans. Nortonville, Kans. Larned, Kans. Larned, Kans. Lawrence, Kans. Howard, Kans. Lawrence, Kans. Farneto, Kars. Lawrence, Kans. Farneto, Kars. Howard, Kans. Farneton, Kars. Farneton, Ky. Frankfort, Ky. Frankfort, Ky. Frankfort, Ky. Frankfort, Ky. Radstown, Ky. Bardstown, Ky. Lexington, Ky. Lexington, Ky. Lexington, Ky.	Ponchartrainr Grove, La	Bains, La	Ducksport La	Minden, I.d., La., New Orleans, La., Cumberland Center, Me., Augusta, Me., Waterville Mo., La., Abrarille, Md., Carnark, Mas., Demort, Mass., Spencer, Mass., Detroit, Mich., Alteis, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Niles, Mich., Howell, Mich., Grand, Ledge, Mich., Grand, Ledge, Mich., Gapae, Mich., Birmingham, Mich.,
W. R. Stubbe. Geo. B. Rose. W. M. Newlin. L. Barthur T. Crocker Ben Schmelder A. T. Stockwell Fred Luptad. F. R. Cadawell F. R. Cadawell F. M. Watkins C. E. Marvin. M. S. Cohen. E. A. Tipton. J. M. Howie. R. A. Stevenson.	E. J. McCall	N. H. Richardson	R. K. Boney	C. M. Roberts O. P. Geren. H. M. Moulton. H. M. Moulton. L. G. B. Weese. Harvey D. Eatom. E. E. McInthre. C. E. Cobb. Don H. Dismond, Ir Burton W. Potter. A. R. Sagendorph. I. R. Waterbury Jacob De Gens Geo. H. Brownell Geo. H. Brownell A. Minky. Harry Ballard. L. Coul Norton, H. Worton, H. W. Norton, H. M. Norton, H. M. Norton, H. M. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. M. Norton, H. M. Norton, H. M. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. Norton, H. W. L. Herbison.
Kansas Live Stock Association. Kansas Invoved Live Stock Breeders' Association. Kansas State Dairy Association. Kansas State Dairy Association. Kansas State Dairy Association of Kansas. Kansas Arshire Breeders' Association. Kansas Arshire Breeders' Association. Kansas Sheep Breeders' Association. Kansas Swine Breeders' Association. Kansas Swine Breeders' Association. Kansas Swine Breeders' Association. Kansas Poland China Breeders' Association. Kansas Poland China Breeders' Association. Kentucky Pure Bred Live Stock Association. Kentucky Protting Horse Breeders' Association. Kentucky Trotting Horse Breeders' Association. Kentucky Breeders' Club of Kentucky Kentucky Breeders' Club of Kentucky Kentucky Stock Association. Kentucky Stock Breeders' Association. Kentucky Stock Breeders' Association. Kentucky Stock Breeders' Association.	Louisiana Live Stock and Breeders' Association	Louisiana Dairymen's Association.	Louisiana Beef Breeders' Association	Louisiana Jersey Breeders' Association Louisiana Swine Breeders' Association Maine Dairynean's Association Maine Dairynean's Association Maine Dairynean's Association Maine Dairynean's Association New England Hereford Breeders' Association Maine Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Maine Borthorn Breeders' Association Maryland State Dairynean's Association Massachusetts Dairynean's Association Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Club of Maryland Smow England Ayrshire Club Sasociation Michigan Inproved Live Stock Breeders and Feeders' Michigan Aberdeen Angus Breeders' Association Michigan Aberdeen Angus Breeders' Association Michigan Aberdeen Angus Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association Michigan Hoistein-Friesian Breeders' Association

STATE ASSOCIATIONS—Continued.

Missouri Hampshire Swine Association. Missouri O. I. C. & Chester White Swine Breeders' Association.	W. J. Brinigar R. H. Soott.	Blythedale, Mo.	Thomas E. Deem	Cameron, Mo. Kingston, Mo.
Missouri Poland China Swine Breeders' Association	J. P. Bennett	Lees Summit, Mo	C. H. Walker	600 Graphic Arts Building, Kunsas
Montana Stock Growers' Association. Montana Horse Breeders' Association. Montana State Daltymen's Association. Workens Shorthorn Breaders' Association.	R. P. Heren. H. L. Summers	Miles City, Mont. Bozeman, Mont. Whitehall, Mont.	D. W. Raymond E. H. Riley G. L. Martin	Helens, Mont. Bozemsu, Mont. Do.
Montana Pure Bred Rog Breeders' Association. Nebraska Improved Live Stock Breeders' Association. Nebraska Live Stock Freeders' Association. Nebraska Live Stock Fedelers' Association. Nebras to Tree Breeders' Association.	P. J. Meloy Charles Graff Z. F. Lettwich.	Townsend, Mont. Bancroft, Nebr St. Paul, Nebr	Albert R. Whitney. H. J. Gramilch	Belgrade, Mont. University Farm, Lincoln, Nebr. Lincoln, Nebr.
Nebraska State Dairymens' Association. Nebraska Dairy Cattle Breeders' Association.	O. L. Severe D. D. Maxfield	R. F. D. No. 2. Lincoln. Nebr.	R. W. McCinnis.	ž.
Aberdem Angus Association of Nebraska. Nebruska Herveford Breeders' Association. Nebruska Rof Polled Cattle Association.	J. A. Amsbery. O. E. Green. Luke Wiles	Mason City, Nebr Genoa, Nebr. Plattsmouth, Nebr	D. K. Robertson. C. B. Benger Elliott R. Davis.	Madison, Wis. Callaway, Nebr. Lincoln, Nebr.
Nebraska Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Nebraska State Sheep Breeders' and Wool Growers Association	Frank Hess.	Surprise, Nebr Shelton, Nebr	C. McCarthyB. Pler	York, Nebr. Omaha, Nebr.
Networks State Swine Breeders' Association. Chester Breeders' Association of Nebraska.	Sam McKelvie. H. L. Bode	Friend, Nebr	Elmer J. Lamb.	Lincoln, Nebr. Friend, Nebr.
State Live Stroke Association. Granite State Dairymen's Association. New Hampshire Ayrshire Cattle Breeders' Club.	W. H. Moffat. C. J. Bell. Hollis F. Towne.	Heno, Nev. Hollis, N. H. Hookset, N. H.	David Staunton. W. P. Davis Geo. H. Yeaton.	Reno, Nev. Durham, N. H. Dover, N. H.
New Hampshire Holstein-Frieslan Club. New Hampshire Jersey Cattle Club. New Hampshire Sheep Breeders' Association.	J. W. Prentiss Geo. M. Putnam. Henry W. Nims.	Alstead, N. H. Contoocook, N. H. Keene, N. H	F. A. Campbell. F. E. Garvin E. G. Ritzman	Durville Notch, N. H. Dunbarton, N. H. Durham, N. H.
New England Berkshire Club. New Jersey Guerneey Breeders, Association.	Geo. L. Flanders Joseph Laroque.	Warner, N. H. Bedminster, N. J.	C. D. Cleveland	Oxford, N. H. Eatontown, N. J.
New Jarsey Luckette, Transland Dreaders Association Jersey Cattle Association of New Jersey New Jersey Berkshire Breeders' Association.	George Batten. A. S. Knight	Montelair, N. J. No. 1 Madison Avenue, New	Fred Huyler L. E. Ortis.	Cladatone, N. J. Bernardsville, N. J.
New Moxico Horse & Cattle Growers' Association Rio Grande Valley Dairy Association. New Maxico Wool Growers' Association.	J. M. Morley. Lee Harlan. G. M. Otero.	York, N. Y. Datil, N. Mex. Telles, N. Mex. Los Lunes, N. Mex.	J. W. Miller Edmondson B. Link Walter M. Connell	Albuquerque, N. Mex. Las Cruces, N. Mex. Commercial Club Building, Albu-
© Eastern New Mexico Swine Growers' Association. New York State Breeders' Association.	O. M. Trotter. H. B. Harpending.	Artesia, N. Mex Dundee, N. Y.	W. C. Reed.	querque, N. Mex. Sante Fe, N. Mex. 428 South Salina Street, Syracuse,
New York State Draft Horse Breeders' Club	E. S. Akin	604 Walnut Ave., Syracuse,	E. E. Horton	Johnson City, N. Y.
New York State Dairymen's Association	George Hogue	Arcade, N. Y.	S. C. Shaver	Department of Agriculture, Al-
Empire State Ayrshire Club. New York State Guernsey Breeders' Association. The Holstein-Friesian Breeders' Club of New York State. CNew York State Jersey Cattle Club. New York State Breeder Breeders' Association.	W. P. Schanck F. M. Smith Edward A. Powell J. L. Craig J. C. Duncan W. S. Hinchey	Avon, N. Y Byringfield Conter, N. Y Syracuse, N. Y Ogdonsburg, N. Y Lewitson, N. Y Rochester, N. V	Milton W. Davison. James H. Seaman. Wing R. Smith. C. O. Gould. J. S. Pratt.	Canistee, N. Y. Ganistee, N. Y. Synacuse, N. Y. East Hampton, N. Y. Inwrood N. Y.
North Carolina Beef Breeders and Feeders' Association	J. E. Latham	Greensboro, N. C.	R. S. Curtis	West Raleigh, N. C.

STATE ASSOCIATIONS—Continued.

Name of association.	President.	Address.	Becretary.	Address.
North Carolina Dairy Association. North Carolina Swine Breeders' Association. North Carolina Poultry Breeders' Association. North Dakota Live Stock Association. United Live Stock Breeders' Association. North Dakota Jersey Cattle Breeders' Association. North Dakota Jersey Cattle Breeders' Association. North Dakota Sy existing Club. Ohlo Live Stock Association. Ohlo Percheron Breeders' Association.	H. P. Lutz G. A. Holderness J. P. Kerr J. A. Power W. P. Hetler C. E. Batchellee C. E. Batchellee C. E. Batchellee C. E. Batchellee C. E. Pollock	Newton, N. C. Tarboro, N. C. Haw River, N. C. Leonard, N. Dak. Esmond, N. Dak. Fingal, N. Dak. Willow City, N. Dak. Willow City, Ohio.	W. H. Eaton Dan T. Gray B. F. Kaupp W. H. Peters Matthew Duffy B. F. Crabbe Harry J. Devine H. E. Carmichael D. J. Kays.	West Raleigh, N. C. Do. Agricultural College, Fargo, N. Dak. Esmond, N. Dak. Fargo, N. Dak. Fargo, N. Dak. Wooster, Ohlo. Ohio State University, Columbus,
Ohio State Dairymen's Association. Ohio Ayralire Breeders' Association. Ohio Galloway Breeders' Association. Ohio Galloway Breeders' Association. Ohio Heredor Cattle Breeders' Association. Ohio Jersey Cattle Club. Ohio Jersey Cattle Club. Ohio Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Ohio Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Ohio Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Ohio Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Ohio Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Ohio Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Ohio Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Ohio Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Oklahoma Inproved Stock Breeders' Association. Oklahoma State Checker. White Breeders' Association. Oklahoma State Aberdem-Angus Breeders' Association. Oklahoma State Aberdem-Angus Breeders' Association. Oklahoma State Aberdem' Association. Oklahoma State Aberdem' Association. Oklahoma Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Origon Pure Bred Live Stock Association. Origon Dairymen's Association. Origon Dairymen's Association			OUGH-OFFECTIGNOS UNKO	
Vorthwest Shorthorn Association. Origon Swins Breeders' Association. Bennsylvania Breeders' Association. Bennsylvania Breeders' Association. Fennsylvania Hotschin Friesian Association. Fennsylvania Betsey Breeders' Association. Fennsylvania Sheep Breeders' Association. Fennsylvania Berkshre Breeders' Association. South Carolina Live Stock Association. South Carolina Live Stock Association.	Thos. Brunk. E. S. Bayard. E. S. Bayard. Hornos G. Twaddell. R. L. Munce. E. S. Deubler. G. Y. Eunter.		G. C. Fotter. G. O. Swales. E. K. Hibshman. W. M. Benninger. Charles Leonard. E. B. Henderson. E. B. Debbler (scting). Walter Sorrell. B. K. Cooper, Jr.	Jornallis, Orreg. Johnson, Wash. State College, Pa. Benningers, Pa. Troy, Pa. Indicory, Pa. Narberth, Pa. Camden, S. C.

Brookings, S. Dak.	Do. Badger, S. Dak. Alexandria, S. Dak. Hurley, S. Dak. Nashville, Tenn.	Denton, Tex. Fort Worth, Tex. College Station, Tex.	San Angelo, Tex. College Station, Tex. Smithfield, Tex. Sonora, Tex. College Station, Tex.	Logan, Utah. Dandon, Vt. Waterbury, Vt.	west Harlort, vt. Lyndonville, Vt. Jetersville, Va. Locust Dale, Va. Sweetbriar, Va.	Spokane, Wash. Spokane, Wash. Everett, Wash. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do.	Fort Atkinson, Wis. Back River Falls, Wis. Madison, Wis. Rosendale, Wis. Lake Geneva, Wis. Fachor, Wis.	Avoca, Wis. Badison, Wis. Sun Prarie, Wis. Wankesha, Wis. Badison, Wis. Delavan, Wis. Lancaster, Wis.
James W. Wilson	A. P. Ryger P. R. Crothers F. D. Peckham. J. F. White J. E. Wite	W. C. Grant. E. B. Spiller. R. L. Pou. Koss Barry	J. P. Lee. C. M. Evans. L. B. Brown. L. B. Burk	W. E. Carroll. G. G. Calne. Clyde N. Smith M. H. Moody G. G. Walte.	on.	E. W. Chapman. E. W. Chapman. A. B. Winter. E. W. Sheets. A. A. Rhea. do. do. Andrew Hopkins.	P. C. Burchard A. J. Kuller A. J. MeNab H. C. Taylor Chas. L. Hill C. W. Thompson E. R. Westf	L. C. Underwood M. L. Tormey W. A. Freehoff W. A. H. Kuhlman J. D. Grant W. W. W. Weacham Burlie Dabson
Mitchell, S. Dak	Flandreau, S. Dak Mitchell, S. Dak Gann Valley, S. Dak Redfield, S. Dak Lynnville Tean Spring Hill Tean	Venus, Tex Menard, Tex Collegeport, Tex Shamrock, Tex	Fort Worth, Tex. Sherman, Tex. Supylor, Tex. Sonors, Tex. Seguin, Tex.	Salt Lake City, Utah. do Brandon, Vt. Brattleboro, Vt. Brattleboro, Vt. Freehen E.h. Vv.	Ausselly Falls, Vt. Shelburne, Mass. Winchester, Va. Burkevills, Va. Candon, S. C. Woodberry Forest, Va.	Ruce, va Satisop, Wash Chimacum, Wash Clarsaburg, W. Va, Wheeling, W. Va, Cannonsburg, Pa. Albary, Wis	Peebles, Wis. Lancscier, Wis. Lina Center, Wis. Belott, Wis. Oglesby, Ill. Mineral Point, Wis. Appleton, Wis.	West Bend, Wis Rockland, Wis Albury, Wis Beloit, Wis Beston, Wis Watmakee, Wis Fond du Lac, Wis Albany, Wis
John M. Erion	Enos Albertson. P. A. Zollman. J. E. Ziebach. Fred Meyers.	Tom W. Hines. James Callan. H. A. Clapp.	B. C. Rhome, jr. Dupont B. Lyon. G. E. King B. M. Halbert. G. P. Lillarde.	A. W. Ivins. W. C. Winder. C. M. Winslow Elbert C. Tenney. G. F. Oregory.		W. B. Crands Wm. Bishop H. M. Gore. P. O. Reymann R. L. Munce Arthur Broughton W. K. Caldwell	M Michels P. Celbach James Van Etta, I'm Inman, J. R. Brent Irving Jowell. W. H. Schnefer, W. H. Clark	
South Dakota Improved Live Stock and Poultry Breed. John M. Erion.	South Dakota Dailymen's and Buttermakers' Association. South Dakota Holstein-Friesan Association. South Dakota Shorthorn Breeders' Association. South Dakota Pure Bred Swine Breeders' Association. Middle Tennessee Beet Breeders' Association. Tennessee Iersey Breeders' Association.	Texas Jack and Mule Breeders' Association Cattle Raisers' Association of Texas. Texas Dairymen's Association Texas Aberdeen-Angus Breeders' Association	Texas Hereford Association Texas Jersey Cattle Club. Texas Shorthorn Breeders' Association Sheep and Geat Raisers' Association of Texas. Texas Swine Breeders' Association.	Utan Live Stock Breeders' Association Utan State Dairymen's Association Utan State Dairymen's Association Vermont Ayrshire Club Vermont Guernsey Breeders' Association Vermont Guernsey Breeders' Association Vermont Insere	New England Shorthorn Breeders' Association. Virgina State Dairymen's Association. Virginia State Ouernsey Breeders' Association. Atlantic Hereford Cattle Breeders' Association. Virginia Holstein Friedan Club.	Washington Pure Bred Live Stock Association. Western Washington Holstein Breeders' Association. West Virginia Live Stock Association. West Virginia Avrahire Breeders' Association. Tri-State Sheep Breeders' and Wool Growers' Association. Wisconsin Live Stock Breeders' Association. Wisconsin Live Stock Breeders' Association.	Wisconsin Duitymen's Association. Wisconsin Aberdeen Angus Breeders' Association. Wisconsin Ayrahire Breeders' Association. Wisconsin Brown Swiss Cattle Breeders' Association. Sin Wisconsin Hereford State Breeders' Association. Find Wisconsin Hereford Cattle Breeders' Association. Holdelin-Friesan Breeders' Association of Wisconsin Jersey Breeders' Association.	

STATISTICS OF GRAIN CROPS, 1917.

CORN.

TABLE 1.—Corn: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
NORTH AMERICA. United States	Acres. 106, 197, 000	Acres. 105, 296, 000	Acres. 119, 755, 000	Bushels. 2,994,793,000	Bushels. 2,566,927,000	Bushels. 3, 159, 494, 000
Canada: OntarioQuebec	237,000 16,000	160,000 13,000		13, 860, 000 508, 000	5,960,000 322,000	
Total Ontario and Quebec	253,000	173,000		14, 368, 000	6, 282, 000	
Mexico	(1)	(1)	(1)	60,000,000	(1)	(1)
Total				3,069,161,000		
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Chile. Uruguay	10,386,000 80,000 787,000	9,928,000 66,000 697,000	8,969,000 (1)	338, 235, 000 1, 842, 000 11, 382, 000	161, 133, 000 1,570,000 4,604,000	58, 839, 000
Total				351, 459, 000		
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary proper Croatia-Blavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina.	² 362,000 6,194,000 (1) (1)	: :	3333	\$ 8,050,000 180,550,000 25,000,000 7,000,000	83	: :
Total, Austria- Hungary				220, 600, 000		
Bulgaria France Italy Portugal Roumania	* 1,571,000 935,000 3,887,000 (1) 5,207,000	(1) 812,000 3,918,000 (1) 5,066,000	738,000 3,627,000	35,000,000 17,104,000 121,824,000 9,275,000 86,412,000	(1) (1) 81,547,000 (1) (1)	(1) (1) 87,000,000
Russia: Russia proper Northern Caucasia	2,717,000 917,000	2,865,000		44,663,000 18,520,000	62,207,000	
Total, Russia	3,634,000			63, 183, 000		
SerbiaSpain	1, 152, 000	1,154,000	1,102,000	12,000,000 29,096,000	28, 642, 000	27,557,000
Total	••••			594, 494, 000		
ASIA.						
British India. Japan Philippine Islands	6,073,000 143,000 1,095,000	6,735,000 157,000 1,069,000	142,000	82, 200, 000 4, 022, 000 14, 753, 000	4,102,000 14,083,000	3,705,000
Total				100,975,000		
AFRICA.						
Algeria Egypt Union of South Africa	1,907,000 2,562,000	1,850,000 2,740,000	20,000 1,735,000 2,608,000	350,000 39,803,000 36,607,000	68,362,000 25,000,000	302,000 34,999,000

¹ No official statistics.

² Galicia and Bukowina not included.

TABLE 1.—Corn: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917—Contd.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917 -	1915	1916	1917
AUSTRALASIA.					•	
Australia:	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
Queensland New South Wales	176,000 144,000	146,000 154,000		4,261,000 3,175,000	2,003,000 3,773,000	
Victoria	19,000	22,000		1,018,000	1,000,000	
Western Australia South Australia	83	1,000		1,000	16,000	
Total, Australia	340,000	324,000	319,000	8, 456, 000	6, 794, 000	8,500,000
New Zealand	5,000	8,000	6,000	284,000	351,000	283,000
Total, Australasia	345,000	832,000	325,000	8,740,000	7, 145, 000	8, 783, 000
Grand total				4,201,589,000		

¹ Less than 500 acres.

TABLE 2.—Corn: Total production of countries named in Table 1, 1895-1915.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899	Bushels. 2, 834, 750, 000 2, 964, 435, 000 2, 587, 206, 000 2, 682, 619, 000 2, 724, 100, 000 2, 792, 561, 000	1901 1902 1903 1904	Bushels. 2, 366, 883, 000 3, 187, 311, 000 3, 086, 506, 000 3, 109, 252, 000 3, 461, 181, 000	1906 1907 1908 1909	Bushels. 3,963,645,000 3,420,321,000 3,606,931,000 3,563,226,000 4,031,630,000	1911 1912 1913 1914 1915	Bushels. 3, 481, 007, 000 4, 371, 888, 000 3, 587, 429, 000 3, 777, 913, 000 4, 201, 589, 000

Table 3.—Corn: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

		Aver-		Aver- age farm		Chic	ago cas ishel, c	sh pri	ce per ct.1	Domestic exports, including	Per cent
Year.	Acreage.	yield per acre.	Production.	price per bushel	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		owing ay.	oorn meal, fiscal year begin-	ex- crop
				Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	ning July 1.	ed.
1849 1859	Астев.	Bush.	Bushels. 592,071,000 838,795,000	Cents.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cta.	Cts.	Bushels. 7,632,860 4,248,991	P.cl. 1.3
1866 1867 1868 1869	34,307,000 32,520,000 34,887,000 87,103,000	25. 3 23. 6 26. 0 23. 6	867, 946, 000 768, 320, 000 906, 527, 000 874, 320, 000 760, 945, 000	47. 4 57. 0 46, 8 59. 8	411, 451, 000 487, 770, 000 424, 057, 000 522, 551, 000	53 61 38 56	62 65 58 67	64 61 44 73	79 71 51 85	16, 026, 947 12, 498, 522 8, 286, 665 2, 140, 487	1.8 1.6 .9
1870 1871 1872 1873 1874	38,647,000 34,091,000 35,527,000 39,197,000 41,037,000	28. 8 29. 1 30. 8 23. 8 20. 7	1,094,255,000 991,898,000 1,092,719,000 932,274,000 850,148,000	49. 4 43. 4 85. 3 44. 2 58. 4	540, 520, 000 430, 356, 000 385, 736, 000 411, 961, 000 496, 271, 000	41 36 27 40 64	59 39 28 49 76	46 88 34 49 53	52 43 39 59 67	10, 673, 553 85, 727, 010 40, 154, 374 85, 985, 834 30, 025, 086	1.0 3.6 3.7 3.9 3.5
1875 1876 1877 1878 1879	51, 585, 000 53, 085, 000	29. 5 26. 2 26. 7 26. 9 29. 2 28. 1	1,321,069,000 1,283,828,000 1,342,558,000 1,388,219,000 1,547,902,000 1,764,692,000	36. 7 34. 0 34. 8 81. 7 37. 5	484, 675, 000 436, 109, 000 467, 635, 000 440, 281, 000 580, 486, 000	40 40 41 30 39	47 43 49 32 431	41 43 85 33 32	45 56 41 36 861	50,910,532 72,652,611 87,192,110 87,884,892 99,572,329	3.9 5.7 6.5 6.8 6.4
					0.4- 1000		Diait	ized b	V (J	JOYIC -	

² Less than 500 bushels.

Table 3.—Corn: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849–1917.—Continued.

Year.	Acreage.	Average yield per	Production.	Aver- age farm price per	Farm value Dec. 1.	b	ago car ushel, c mber.	Foll		Domestic exports, including corn meal, fiscal	Per cent of crop ex-
•		acre.		Dushel Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	year begin- ningJuly 1.	port- ed.
1880 1881 1882 1883	Acres. 62,318,000 64,262,000 65,660,000 68,302,000 69,684,000	Bush. 27. 6 18. 6 24. 6 22. 7 25. 8	Bushels. 1,717,435,000 1,194,916,000 1,617,025,000 1,551,067,000 1,795,528,000	Cente. 39. 6 63. 6 48. 5 42. 4 35. 7	Dollars. 679, 714, 000 759, 482, 000 783, 967, 000 658, 051, 000 640, 786, 000	Cts. 354 584 494 544 344	Cts. 42 633 61 634 401	Cts. 413 69 531 523 441	Cts. 45 767 561 57 49	Bushelt. 93, 648, 147 44, 340, 688 41, 655, 658 46, 258, 606 52, 876, 456	P.ct. 5.5 3.7 2.6 3.0 2.9
1885 1886 1887 1888 1889	73, 130, 000 75, 694, 000 72, 393, 000 75, 673, 000 78, 320, 000 78, 068, 000	26. 5 22. 0 20. 1 26. 8 27. 0 29. 4	1,936,176,000 1,665,441,000 1,456,161,000 1,987,790,000 2,112,892,000 2,122,328,000	32. 8 36. 6 44. 4 34. 1 28. 3	635, 675, 000 610, 311, 000 646, 107, 000 677, 562, 000 597, 919, 000	36 35‡ 47 33‡ 29‡	421 38 511 357 357	841 868 54 831 321	361 391 60 351 35	64, 829, 617 41, 368, 584 25, 360, 869 70, 841, 673 103, 418, 709	3.8 2.5 1.7 3.6 4.9
1890 1891 1892 1893	71, 971, 000 76, 205, 000 70, 627, 000 72, 036, 000 62, 582, 600	20.7 27.0 23.1 22.5 19.4	1, 489, 970, 000 2, 060, 154, 000 1, 628, 464, 000 1, 619, 496, 000 1, 212, 770, 000	50. 6 40. 6 39. 4 86. 5 45. 7	754, 433, 000 836, 439, 000 642, 147, 000 591, 626, 000 554, 719, 000	473 393 40 343 441	58 59 427 864 472	55 40 1 39 36 47	69½ 2100 44½ 38½ 55½	82, 041, 529 76, 602, 285 47, 121, 894 66, 489, 529 28, 585, 405	2.2 3.7 2.9 4.1 2.4
1896 1896 1897 1898 1899	82,076,000 81,027,000 80,095,000 77,722,000 82,109,000 94,914,000	26. 2 28. 2 23. 8 24. 8 25. 3 88. 1	2, 151, 139, 000 2, 283, 875, 000 1, 902, 968, 000 1, 924, 185, 000 2, 078, 144, 000 2, 666, 324, 000	25. 8 21. 5 26. 3 28. 7 30. 3	544,986,000 491,007,000 501,073,000 552,023,000 629,210,000	25 22½ 25 33½ 30	26 23 27 38 31	27½ 28 32½ 32½ 36	87- 842	101, 100, 375 178, 817, 417 212, 055, 548 177, 255, 046 213, 123, 412	4.7 7.8 11.1 9.2 10.8
1900 1901 1902 1903 1904	83,821,000 91,350,000 94,044,000 88,092,000 92,282,000	25. 3 16. 7 26. 8 25. 5 26. 8	2,105,103,000 1,522,520,000 2,523,648,000 2,244,177,000 2,467,481,000	42.5 44.1	751,220,000 921,556,000 1,017,017,000 952,869,000 1,087,461,000	351 623 431 41 431	401 671 571 431 49	425 591 44 471 48	581 641 46 50 641	181, 405, 473 28, 028, 688 76, 639, 261 58, 222, 061 90, 293, 488	8.6 1.8 3.0 2.6 3.7
	94,011,000 96,738,000 99,931,000 101,788,000 108,771,000 98,585,000	28. 8 80. 3 25. 9 26. 2 26. 5 85. 9	2,707,994,000 2,927,416,000 2,592,320,000 2,668,651,000 2,772,376,000 8,558,190,000	39. 9 51. 6 60. 6	1,116,697,000 1,166,626,000 1,336,901,000 1,616,145,000 1,477,222,000	42 40 57 564 624	501 46 611 621	473 493 674 721	50 56 82 76	119, 893, 833 86, 368, 228 55, 063, 860 37, 665, 040 28, 128, 498	4.4 8.0 2.1 1.4
1911 1912 1913 1914	104, 035, 000 106, 825, 000 107, 083, 000 106, 820, 000 103, 435, 000	27. 7 23. 9 29. 2 23. 1 25. 8	2, 886, 260, 000 2, 581, 488, 000 3, 124, 746, 000 2, 446, 988, 000 2, 672, 804, 000	61. 8 48. 7 69. 1 64. 4	1,384,817,000 1,565,258,000 1,520,454,000 1,692,092,000 1,722,070,000	451 68 471 64 621	50 70 54 734 681	521 761 551 67 501	551 824 60 724 56	65, 614, 522 41, 797, 291 50, 780, 143 10, 725, 819 50, 668, 303	2.3 1.7 1.6 .4 1.9
1916	106, 197, 000 105, 296, 000 119, 755, 000	28. 2 24. 4 26. 4	2,994,793,000 2,566,927,000 3,159,494,000	88. 9	1,722,680,000 2,280,729,000 4,053,672,000	694 88 160	75 96 190	69 152	781 174	89, 896, 928 66, 753, 194	1.3 2.6

¹ No. 2 to 1908.

-TABLE 4.—Corn: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916 and 1917.

State.	Thous:		Productions of 1		Total val Dec. 1 pri sands of	ce (thou-
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
Maine. New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts. Rhode Island Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	20	15	780	845	1,778	768
	26	19	1,092	874	2,370	1,005
	54	45	2,538	1,935	5,406	2,128
	61	42	2,806	1,764	6,033	2,117
	13	11	546	341	1,289	471
	95	70	4,845	3,010	10,417	3,612
	840	700	26,040	21,000	51,559	23,100
	297	270	12,771	10,800	21,711	10,800
	1,575	1,450	62,212	56,550	95,184	54,854
	230	205	7,820	6,970	10,948	6,203
Maryland Virginia West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina	720	675	28, 080	26, 325	39, 312	23, 429
	2, 450	2,100	72, 275	58, 800	110, 581	54, 684
	834	740	25, 020	22, 570	42, 534	22, 796
	3, 000	2,600	60, 000	48, 100	102, 000	52, 910
	2, 313	2,065	43, 947	32, 008	2ed 84, 378	86, 169

² Coincident with "corner."

³ Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 4.—Corn: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916 and 1917—Continued.

State.		ands of res.		on (thou- bushels).	Total val Dec. 1 pri sands of	ce (thou-
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
Georgia (4,500	4,000	72,000	62,000	115, 200	62,000
	925	820	13,875	12,300	19, 425	11,070
	3,950	8,600	150,100	113,400	204, 186	102,000
	5,651	5,137	203,436	174,658	264, 295	146,711
	11,000	10,200	418,000	300,900	459, 800	252,750
Michigan	1,750	1,660	37,625	45, 375	68, 478	43, 100
Wisconsin	1,918	1,690	42,196	60, 840	68, 779	55, 973
Minnesota	3,000	2,600	90,000	87, 100	99, 000	69, 686
Iowa	11,100	10,050	410,700	366, 825	443, 556	293, 460
Missouri	7,200	6,775	252,000	132, 112	287, 280	118, 901
North Dakota. South Dakota. Nebraska Kansas. Kentucky.	590	510	5,810	13, 515	8,018	11,351
	8,350	2,950	97,150	84, 075	116,580	64,788
	9,240	7,400	249,480	192, 400	299,376	150,077
	9,156	6,950	128,184	69, 500	160,280	62,550
	3,900	3,400	122,850	95, 200	148,648	82,834
Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi. Louksiana. Texas.	3,900	3,000	111, 150	78,000	133, 380	73, 326
	4,825	8,825	77, 200	47,812	96, 500	48, 768
	4,100	3,400	84, 050	47,600	115, 989	46, 641
	2,347	2,134	42, 246	44,814	61, 679	42, 128
	7,075	6,800	77, 825	129,200	129, 968	134, 368
Oklahoma. Arkansas. Montana. Wyoming Colorado.	3,900	8,950	83, 150	58, 325	48,780	49, 592
	2,800	2,550	67, 200	45, 135	94,080	44, 232
	81	74	1, 012	1, 850	1,771	1, 736
	33	25	660	550	1,155	495
	532	475	10, 640	7, 362	12,300	6, 626
New Maxico	170	125	8,400	2,625	6,392	2,966
	32	22	864	770	1,642	1,078
	20	18	500	429	850	400
	2	1	60	84	90	42
Idaho Washington Oregon. California	22	21	682	785	1,067	786
	41	88	1,517	1,406	2,458	1,406
	42	40	1,260	1,340	1,890	1,273
	75	64	2,400	2,048	4,440	2,540
United States	119,755	105, 296	8, 159, 494	2,566,927	4,053,672	2, 290, 729

TABLE 5.—Corn: Production and distribution in the United States, 1897-1917.
[000 omitted.]

Year.	Old stock on farms Nov. 1.	Crop.	Total supplies.	Stock on farms Mar. 1 following.	Shipped out of county where grown.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
1897	290, 934	1,902,968	2, 193, 902	782, 871	411,617
1898	137,894	1,924,185	2,062,079	800, 533	896,005
1899	113, 644	2,078,144	2,191,788	773, 730	348,098
1900	92,328	2, 105, 103	2, 197, 431	776, 166	478, 417
1901	95,825	1,522,520	1,618,345	441,132	153, 213
19V1	50,020	1,022,020	2,020,020	311,102	100,210
1902	29, 267	2,523,648	2, 552, 915	1,050,653	557, 296
1903	131,210	2, 244, 177	2,875,387	839,063	419,877
1904	80, 246	2, 467, 481	2,547,727	954, 268	551,695
1905	82, 285	2,707,994	2,790,279	1,108,864	681, 539
1906	119,633	2,927,416	3,047,049	1,297,979	679,544
1000	100 005	0 700 000	0 700 017	000.400	
1907	130,995	2,592,320	2,723,315	962,429	467,675
1908	71, 124	2,668,651	2,739,775	1,047,763	568, 129
1909	79,779	2,552,190	2,631,969	977,561	635, 248
1910	115,696	2,886,260	3,001,956	1, 165, 378	661,777
1911	123,824	2,531,488	2,655,312	884,069	517,704
1912	64.764	3, 124, 746	3, 189, 510	1,289,655	680,796
1913.	137,972	2,446,988	2,584,960	866, 392	422,091
1914.	80,046	2,672,804	2,752,850	910, 894	498, 285
1915	96,009	2,994,793	3,090,802	1,116,559	560, 824
1916	87,908	2,566,927	2,654,835	782,303	450,580
1917	34,448	3, 159, 494	3,193,942		
A7A1	AE, 220	0,100,101	U, 100) (FEE		B.:

Statistics of Corn.

CORN-Continued.

TABLE 6.—Corn: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			3	ield	per	acre	(bus	shels).			F	arm	prie (cer	e per	bus	hel	per	lue sere ars).
State.	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916.	1917
Me	42.7	39.0	38. 0 35. 1 37. 0 38. 0 33. 2	46.0	45.0	46.0	37.0	46.0	45.0	46. 0	42.0	95		88 82 81 85 98	85 76 84 80 100	119 115 110 120 138	228 217 213 215 236	37. 91 37. 86 36. 56 39. 40 39. 92	88. 92 91. 14 100. 11 98. 90 99. 12
Conn N. Y. N. J. Pa. Del.	36.1	38.8	41.0 36.0 32.7 32.0 31.0	38.3	38.5 36.8	38.6	28.5 39.5	$\frac{41.0}{38.5}$	40.0 38.0	30.0	31.0	91 84		89 83 76 73 62	85 78 75 70 62	97	198 170 153	29.67 30.64	73.10 60.44
Va	25.5 30.2 18.9	26.0 31.2 18.0	31.4 23.2 31.4 16.8 16.7	25.5 26.0 18.6	24.0 25.7 18.4	24.0 33.8 18.2	26.0 31.0 19.5	20.5 31.0 20.3	28.5 31.5 21.0	28.0 30.5 18.5	29.5 30.0 20.0	83 87 94	65 76 80 88 97	68 81 83 86 92	61 71 74 77 87	89 93 101 110 113	153 170 170	24.55 19.94 25.32 17.25 16.61	45.14 51.00 34.00
GaFla. OhioIndIII	14.0 38.4 36.3	10.5 38.5 30.3	13.9 12.6 39.5 40.0 35.9	13.0 36.5 39.3	14.6 38.6 36.0	13.0 42.8 40.3	15.0 37.5 36.0	16.0 39.1 33.0	15.0 41.5 38.0	15.0 31.5 34.0	15.0 38.0 36.0	87 67 62	91 82 63 60 63	85 80 61 58 61	78 73 56 51 54	100 90 90 84 84	140	12.99 11.96 23.66 21.12 19.06	25.60 21.00 51.68 45.00 41.80
Mich Wis Minn Iowa Mo	33.3 32.6 34.9	33.7 29.0 31.7	35. 4 33. 0 34. 8 31. 5 26. 4	32.5 32.7 36.3	36.3 33.7 31.0	35.7 34.5 43.0	40.5 40.0 34.0	$\frac{40.5}{35.0}$	23.0 23.0 30.0	36.0 33.5 36.5	$ \begin{array}{r} 22.0 \\ 30.0 \\ 37.0 \\ \end{array} $	73 60 58	67 60 -53 60 74	67 65 52 55 68	68 68 62 51 57	95 92 80 80 90	163 110 108	22. 76 23. 52 18. 64 20. 17 15. 40	35.86 33.00 39.96
Kans	27.7 24.5 17.5	29.7 27.0 22.0	31.0 31.7 24.8 19.9 29.0	25.0 25.8 19.0	22.0 21.0 14.5	30.6 24.0 23.0	25.5 15.0 3.2	26.0 24.5 18.5	29.0 30.0 31.0	28.5 26.0 10.0	29.0 27.0 14.0	58 59 66	78	58 50 53 63 64	67 49 47 51 56	84 77 78 90 87	120 120 125	13.20 9.63	34.50 32.40
La	16.1 18.2 20.4	14.7 17.3 19.8	22. 0 13. 5 14. 5 23. 0 15. 0	18.0 20.5 23.6	18.0 19.0 18.5	17.2 18.3 18.0	17.3 20.0 22.0	17.0 18.5 19.3	17.0 19.0 20.5	12.5 14.0 21.0	16.0 20,5 18.0	86 82 79	77 89 77 77 82	68 80 73 75 74	58 69 65 64 58	102 98 94	125 138 146	17. 67 13. 41 13. 59 15. 30 16. 19	20 00 28, 29 26, 28
Okla. Ark Mont Wyo. Colo.	15.8 20.5 25.8 22.5 19.7	24.8 20.2 23.4 28.0 20.2	17. 0 18. 0 35. 0 28. 0 24. 2	16.0 24.0 23.0 10.0 19.9	6.5 20.8 26.5 15.0 14.0	18.7 20.4 25.5 23.0 20.8	11.0 19.0 31.5 29.0 15.0	12.5 17.5 28.0 25.0 23.0	29.5 23.0 28.0 25.0 24.0	13.5 17.7 25.0 22.0 15.5	8.5 24.0 12.5 20.0 20.0	69 80 91 84 73	72 78 77 80 73	64 80 76 70 60	46 64 69 67 55	93 98 93 90 90	140 175 175	9.94 14.91 21.19 18.39 12.46	33, 60 21, 88 35, 00
Nev	31.6 31.7 32.4	33.2	31.3 32.1 31.4	32.5 30.3 30.0	33.0 35.0 30.5	33.0 30.0 30.0	28.0 34.0 34.0	32.0 35.0 36.0	30.0 34.0 35.0	35.0 33.0 34.0	27.0 25.0 30.0	119 91 108	70 118	75 110	73 115 80 93	115 125	190 170 150		51.30 42.50 45.00
Idaho Wash Oreg	29.3 30.1	25,5	27.8 30.7	$\frac{28.0}{25.5}$	28.5 28.5	$\frac{27.3}{31.5}$	28.0 28.5	27.0	27.0 35.0	$\frac{37.0}{33.5}$	37.0	88 87	68 80 70 88	72 73 82 87	65 77 82 88	100 100 95 124	162 150	24. 96 24. 18 25. 74 33. 51	59.94 45.00
U.S	26.0	26.2	25.5	27.7	23.9	29.2	23.1	25.8	28.2	24.4	26.4	68.7	69.1	64.4	57.5	88.9	128.3	16 94	33, 83

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

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Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

CORN-Continued.

TABLE 7.—Corn: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1917.

	New	York.	Balti	more.	Cinci	nnati.	Chie	ago.	Det	roit.	8í. I	ouis.		Fran- ico.
. Date.		o. 2 low.	M	red.		o. 2 ted.	Cont	ract.	No	. 3.	No	o. 2 .	Whit 100	e (per lbs.).
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	Hìgh.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cts. 671 541	Cts. 871 84	Cts. 67 52	Cts. 85 87	Cts. 64 47	Cts. 87 84	Cts. 631 472	Cts. 82½ 83	Cts. 621 48	Cts. 834 814	Cts. 68 45	Cts. 85 80}	Cts. 155 150	Cts. 1971 195
1913. JanJune July-Dec	57½ 67	711 871	52 <u>1</u> 64 <u>1</u>	65 <u>1</u> 68	48 634	65 81	46 <u>3</u> 60	63 78 <u>1</u>	48 60 <u>1</u>	62 781	45 612	64 82	145 1511	155 187
1914. JanJune July-Dec	60 713	821 93	66) 67)	.77 89	64 63½	75 884	60 62 <u>1</u>	73 <u>1</u> 86	62 634	74 88	63 624	731 87	161 167½	178 193
1915. JanJune July-Dec	771 72	901 921	72 671	84 1 87	70 62	81 84	681 5 01	79 824	70 64	80 84	681 581	78 1 81	172 146	190 180
1916. January February March April May June	85 83 80 85 79	89 88 86 91 92 88	70 743 753 804 73	821 80 81 82 82 84	704 71 724 76 754 724	771 78 761 79 78 781	723 713 70 743 69 69	794 794 77 79 784 784	721 72 72 76 71 72	78 771 76 79 79	70 711 71 731 691 70	77 77 74 76 76	170 172 170 170 170 176 176	175 172 172 180 180 177
JanJune.	791	921	70	847	704	79	69	794	71	79}	693	77	170	180
July	881 921 961 981 104 1021	93 100 101 120 119 108	851 881 92 92 105 95	90 94 95 107 105 104	79 83 861 88 97 85	831 89 881 103 107 91	78 82 84 88 90 88	841 884 90 111 110 96	791 841 88 91 98 941	85 91 92 115 117 102	754 804 834 863 91 884	821 871 89 111 1071 941	175 188 196 196 215 205	190 205 205 215 215 215
July-Dec	881	120	851	107	79	107	78	111	791	117	751	111	175	245
1917. January February March April May June	931 1081 118 134 1621 1701	116 121 132 173 183 186	105 106 114 128 164 161	115) 1161 128 1731 180 182	95 103 105 128 154 164	105] 109 122 154] 173 176	931 961 1021 123 152 158	103 1021 1221 160 174 176	102 102 107 133 161 162	106 107 127 165 175 176]	943 954 1013 126 1524 155	102 101 123 161 171 1754	205 215 220 255 325 320	220 222 269 \$30 350 340
JanJune.	931	186	105	182	95	176	931	176	102	176}	943	1751	205	350
July	189 181 205 202 154 214	2391 245 235 220 232 214	1831 178 190 198 140 155	221 230 215½ 205 175 175	182 170 197 194 190 160	223 235 214 204 224 185	177½ 160 195 189 185 160	232 236 224 215½ 229 190	181 182 205 198 211 200	235 240 230 220 231 211	177 161 190 190 174 162}	231 233 222 210 196 179	335 365 365 (1) (1) 338	450 467 370 (1) (1) 338
July-Dec	154	245	140	230	160	235	160	236	181	240	161	233	335	467

¹ Nominal.

TABLE 8.—Corn: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1897-1917

Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
1897 1898 1899 1900 1901 1902 1903	P. ct. 82.9 90.5 86.5 89.5 81.3 87.5 79.4	P. ct. 84.2 87.0 89.9 87.5 54.0 86.5 78.7	P. ct. 79.3 84.1 85.2 80.6 51.7 84.3 80.1	P. ct. 77. 1 82. 0 82. 7 78. 2 52. 1 79. 6 80. 8	1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	P. ct. 86. 4 87. 3 87. 5 80. 2 82. 8 89. 3 85. 4	P. ct. 87.3 89.0 88.0 82.8 82.5 84.4 79.3	P. ct. 84. 6 89. 5 90. 2 80. 2 79. 4 74. 6 78. 2	P. ct. 83.9 89.2 90.1 78.0 77.8 73.8 80.3	1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917	P. ct. 80. 1 81. 5 86. 9 85. 8 81. 2 82. 0 81. 1	P. ct. 69. 6 80. 0 75. 8 74. 8 79. 5 75. 3 78. 8	P. ct. 70.3 82.1 65.1 71.7 78.8 71.3 76.7	P. ct. 70.4 82.2 65.3 72.9 79.7 71.5 75.9

TABLE 9.—Corn: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.	Uni Sta	ited tes.	No Atia Sta	ntic		ith intic ites.	N. Ce State of Mi	s east	N. Ce States of Mis	west		ath tral tes.	Far Vern S	
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
January Pebruary March April May June	Cts. 90. 0 95. 8 100. 9 113. 4 150. 6 160. 1	66.7 68.2 70.3	119.1	79. 5 81. 6 82. 6	107. 2 114. 3 124. 6 167. 9	81.8 85.4 87.3 89.1	94. 3 99. 0	66. 6 66. 4	92.3 108.4 141.3	60. 2 63. 1 65. 3	103. 1 108. 9 119. 5 160. 0	66.9 72.4 75.8 76.2	103.7 110.8 118.7 142.7	71. 5 78. 7 75. 9 79. 3
July	164. 6 196. 6 175. 5 175. 1 146. 0 128. 3	79. 4 83. 6 82. 3	195.7 198.1 204.3	87. 4 93. 8 94. 3	199.6 198.6 190.9 171.7	95.0 98.4 96.9 95.0	198. 7 170. 3 181. 6	76. 8 81. 7 81. 5 82. 8	197. 4 162. 7 168. 0 137. 1	73.3 77.9	191. 6 188. 5 166. 2 138. 6	83. 6 86. 4 83. 4 86. 6	182. 8 174. 8 168. 1	85.4 88.7 87.2 88.7
Average	132.7	74.3	153. 1	87.0	159.1	91.1	127.0	71.1	120.8	67.4	139.3	80.0	141.1	80.9

TABLE 10.—Corn (including meal): International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[The item maicena or maizena is included as "Corn and corn meal."]

GENERAL NOTE.—Substantially the international trade of the world. It should not be expected that the world export and import totals for any year will agree. Among sources of disagreement are these:

(1) Different periods of time covered in the "year" of the various countries; (2) imports received in year subsequent to year of export; (3) want of uniformity in classification of goods among countries; (4) different practices and varying degrees of failure in recording countries of origin and ultimate destination; (5) different practices of recording reexported goods; (6) opposite methods of treating free ports; (7) clerical errors, which, it may be assumed, are not infrequent.

The exports given are domestic exports, and the imports given are imports for consumption as far as it is feesible and consistent so to express the facts. While there are some inevitable omissions, on the other hand there are some duplications because of resbipments that do not appear as such in official reports. For the United Kingdom, import figures refer to imports for consumption, when available, otherwise total imports, less exports, of "foreign and colonial merchandise." Figures for the United States include Alaska, Porto Rico, and Hawaii.

EXPORTS.

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	A verage, 1909–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	Country.	Average, 1909–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)
FEOM— Argentina. Austria-Hungary Belgium. British South Africa Bulgaria. Netherlands. Roumania.	8,130	Bushels. 170, 490 6, 851	Bushels. 113, 143 6, 629	Russia. United States. Uraguay Other countries Total	Bushels. 30, 034 45, 054 201 10, 452 270, 986	Bushels. 53 50,337 93 16,679 245,311	Bushels. 97 55, 252

IMPORTS.

Austria-Hungary Belgium British South Africa Canada Cuba Denmark Egypt France Germany Italy Mexico	13, 877 25, 801 23, 710, 629 2, 746 11, 440 471 18, 708 32, 160 14, 895 4, 404	25 10, 980 3, 242 26, 019 17, 582 7, 842	48 8,872 28,379 2,184	INTO continued. Netherlands	29, 580 1, 079 1, 674 335 9, 775 1, 476 3, 987 82, 976 4, 721 270, 971	43, 338 1, 925 471 53 8, 134 8, 292 4, 461 92, 226 4, 797 229, 387	27, 514 1, 865 322 4, 254 4, 767 68, 759
					Digitized	OF Vo	7910

WHEAT.

TABLE 11.—Wheat: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1915-1917.

0		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
NORTH AMERICA. United States	A cres. 60, 469, 000	A cres. 52,316,000	Acres. 45,941,000	Bushels. 1,025,801,000	Bushels. 636,318,000	Bushels. 650, 828, 00
Canada: New Brunswick Ontario. Manitoba. Saskatchewan. Alberta. Other.	14,000 1,093,000 2,754,000 8,524,000 2,156,000 134,000	14,000 865,000 2,726,000 9,032,000 2,606,000 128,000		267,000 30,252,000 79,434,000 243,481,000 70,476,000 2,837,000	242,000 17,931,000 29,667,000 147,559,000 65,088,000 2,294,000	
Total Canada	14, 675, 000	15,370,000	14,756,000	426, 747, 000	262,781,000	
Mexico	(1)	(1)	(1)	4,000,000	(1)	(1)
Total				1, 456, 548, 000		
SOUTH AMERICA. Argentina	15, 471, 000 1, 074 000 783, 000	16,420,000 1,143,000 950,000	16,089,000	169, 166, 000 19, 000, 000 3, 596, 000	172,620,000 20,184,000 9,867,000	70, 224,000 24,067,000 5,390,000
Uruguay	783,000	950,000	780,000	3,596,000	9,867,000	5,390,000
Total				191,762,000	202, 671, 000	99,681,000
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary proper Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina	1,588,000 8,288,000 (1)	888	888	\$ 28, 286, 000 152, 934, 000 15, 000, 000 3, 000, 000	83	(1) (2) (3)
Total Austria- Hungary				199,220,000		
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark Finland France 5 Germany Greece Italy Montenegro Netherlands Norway Portugal Roumania	*400,000 *2,638,000 184,000 48,000 13,564,000 4,950,000 (1) 12,602,000 (1) 163,000 14,000 14,705,000	(1) 152,000 (1) 12,429,000 (1) 11,679,000 (1) 14,000 4,844,000	(1) 131,000 (1) 10,439,000 (1) 10,556,000 (1) 122,000 14,000	8,000,000 46,212,000 7,978,000 196,000 222,776,000 6,000,000 170,541,000 7,090,000 285,000 89,241,000	38, 241, 000 6, 040,000 204, 908, 000 (1) 176, 530, 000 4, 035, 000 7, 343, 000 78, 520, 000	(1) 4,299,000 144,149,000 (1) (1) 139,999,000 (1) 3,452,000 241,000
Russia: Russia proper 5 Poland Northern Caucasia	46,531,000 (1) 10,021,000	42,030,000 (1) (1)	(;)	525, 673, 000 (1) 127, 631, 000	440, 082, 600	(1) (1)
Total Russia, European				653, 304, 000		
Serbia Spain Sweden Switzerland	10,037,000 299,000 114,000	10,148,000 307,000 124,000	10,360,000 329,000 139,000	10,000,000 139,298,000 9,170,000 3,957,000	(1) 152, 329, 000 8, 979, 960 4, 063, 000	(1) 141,087,000 7,496,000 4,556,000
United Kingdom: England Wales Scotland Ireland	2,122,000 49,000 77,000 87,000	1,862,000 50,000 63,000 76,000	61,000	68, 437, 000 1, 421, 000 3, 053, 000 3, 339, 000	53, 262, 000 1, 466, 000 2, 264, 000 2, 916, 000	
Total United King- dom	2,335,000	2,051,000		76, 250, 600	59, 908, 009	
Total				1,797,965,600		

No official statistics.
 Figures for 1910.

² Galicia and Bukowina net included. ⁵ Excludes territory occupied by the enemy by Figures for 1914.

TABLE 11. - Wheat: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917-Contd.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
ASIA. British India 1	Acres. 82,475,000	A cres. 30, 320, 000	Acres. 32,940,000	Bushels. 376, 731, 000 1, 924, 000	Bushels. 323,008,000	Bushels. 379, 232, 000
Japanese Empire: Japan Formosa Chosen 3	1,227,000 17,000 474,000	1,302,000	1,269,000	26, 778, 000 161, 000 5, 851, 000	30, 047, 000 (3) (1)	26, 532, 000
Total	1,718,000			32,790,000		
Persia	(3)	(2)		16,000,000	(2)	
Russia: Central Asia (4 Governments of) Siberia (4 Governments of) Transca u casia (1 Government)	5, 421, 000 7, 727, 000 10, 000	(1) (2) (3)		44, 132, 000 50, 308, 000 126, 000	(3) (2) (1)	
Total	13, 158, 000			94,566,000		
Turkey (Asia Minor only)	(2)	(2)	(2)	85,000,000	(2)	(2)
Total				557, 011, 000		
AFRICA.						
Algaria. Egypt Tunis Union of South Africa	1, 112, 000	3,272,000 1,447,000 1,482,000 785,000	3,222,000 1,116,000 1,819,000 755,000	34,654,000 39,144,000 11,023,000 7,047,000	29, 151, 000 36, 543, 000 7, 165, 000 6, 477, 000	28, 979, 000 29, 834, 000 6, 963, 000 4, 790, 000
Total				91,868,000		
AUSTRALASIA. Australia: Queensland. New South Wales Victoria. South Australia. Western Australia Tasmania. Total Australia.	127,000 2,758,000 2,864,000 2,502,000 1,376,000 24,000	94,000 4,189,000 3,680,000 2,739,000 1,734,000 49,000	228,000 3,521,000 8,126,000 2,765,000 1,567,000 23,000	1, 635, 000 13, 236, 000 4, 065, 000 3, 639, 000 2, 707, 000 396, 000	427,000 68,869,000 60,366,000 35,210,000 18,811,000 1,025,000	2,463,000 86,744,000 51,162,000 43,831,000 16,108,000 492,000
New Zealand	230,000	329,000	219,000	6, 854, 000	7,832,000	5, 055, 000
Total Australasia	9,881,000	12,814,000	11,448,000	32,531,000	192,041,000	155, 855, 000
Grand total				4, 127, 685, 000		

¹ Including native States.

TABLE 12.—Wheat: Total production of countries named in Table 11, 1891-1915.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1891 1892 1893 1894 1896 1896	Bushels. 2, 432, 322, 000 2, 481, 805, 000 2, 559, 174, 000 2, 560, 557, 000 2, 593, 312, 000 2, 506, 320, 000 2, 236, 268, 000	1898 1899 1900 1901 1902 1903 1904	Bushels. 2,948,305,000 2,783,885,000 2,610,751,000 2,955,975,000 3,090,116,000 3,189,813,000 3,163,542,000	1905 1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	Bushcls. 3, 327, 084, 000 3, 434, 354, 000 3, 133, 965, 000 3, 182, 105, 900 3, 581, 519, 000 3, 551, 795, 000	1912 1913 1914 1915	Bushels. 3,791,951,000 4,127,437,000 3,585,916,600 4,127,685,000

² No official statistics.

³ Data for 1914.

TABLE 13.—Wheat: Average yield per acre in undermentioned countries, 1890-1916.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean).1	Ger- many.1	Austria.¹	Hungary proper.	France.2	United King- dom.
Average: 1890-1899 1900-1909 1910-1914	14.1	Bushels. 8.9 9.7 10.3	Bushels. 24.5 28.9 31.7	Bushels. 16. 2 18. 0 20. 8	Bushels. 17.5 18.6	Bushels. 18.6 20.5 19.1	Bushels. 31. 33. 32.
1906	15. 5 14. 0 14. 0 15. 4 13. 9 12. 5 15. 9 15. 2 16. 6 17. 0	7.7 8.0 8.8 12.5 7.0 10.3 13.5 9.4 411.6	30. 3 29. 6 29. 7 30. 5 29. 6 30. 6 33. 6 35. 1 29. 6 28. 6	20.3 18.0 21.0 19.9 19.2 19.6 22.3 19.9 22.9 217.8	22.5 14.9 17.5 14.1 19.8 20.9 19.8 19.6 13.1	20. 2 23. 2 19. 6 22. 0 15. 9 19. 8 21. 0 19. 9 18. 9 16. 6	34. 35. 33. 34. 30. 32. 32.
Average (1907–1916)	14.7					19.4	32.

Bushels of 60 pounds.Winchester bushels.

Table 14.—Wheat: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849–1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

		A ver-		Aver- age farm		bu	go cas shel, N ing.	h pric	e per	Domestic exports, in-	Per
Year.	Acreage harvested.	yield per acre.	Production.			December.			owing ay.	cluding flour, fiscal year beginning July 1.	of erop ex- port- ed.
						Low.	High.	Low.	High.		
1849 1859	Астез.	Bush,	Bushels. 100,488,000 173,105,000	Cents.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels. 7, 535, 901 17, 213, 183	P. ct. 7. 5 9. 9
1866 1867 1868 1869	19, 181, 000	9. 9 11. 6 12. 1 13. 6	152,000,000 212,441,000 224,037,000 280,147,000 287,748,000	152. 7 145. 2 108. 5 76. 5	232,110,000 308,387,000 243,033,000 199,025,000	129 126 80 63	145 140 88 76	185 134 87 79	211 161 96 92	12, 646, 941 26, 323, 014 29, 717, 201 53, 900, 780	8.3 12.4 13.3 20.7
1870 1871 1872 1873 1874	19,944,000 20,858,000 22,172,000	12.4 11.6 12.0 12.7 12.3	235, 885, 000 230, 722, 000 249, 997, 000 281, 255, 000 308, 103, 000	94. 4 114. 5 111. 4 106. 9 86. 3	222,767,000 264,076,000 278,522,000 300,670,000 265,881,000	91 107 97 96 78	98 111 108 106 83	113 120 112 105 78	120 143 122 114 94	52, 574, 111 38, 995, 755 52, 014, 715 91, 510, 898 72, 912, 817	22.3 16.9 20.8 32.5 23.7
1875 1876 1877 1878 1879		11. 1 10. 5 13. 9 13. 1 13. 8 13. 0	292, 136, 000 289, 356, 000 364, 194, 000 420, 122, 000 448, 757, 000 459, 483, 000	89. 5 97. 0 105. 7 77. 6 110. 8	261, 397, 000 280, 743, 000 385, 089, 000 325, 814, 000 497, 030, 000	82 104 103 81 122	91 117 108 84 1331	89 130 98 91 1123	100 172 113 102 119	74, 750, 682 57, 043, 936 92, 141, 626 150, 502, 506 180, 304, 181	25.6 19.7 25.3 35.8 40.2
1880 1881 1882 1883	37, 987, 000 37, 709, 000 37, 067, 000 36, 456, 000 39, 476, 000	13. 1 10. 2 13. 6 11. 6 13. 0	498, 550, 000 383, 280, 000 504, 185, 000 421, 086, 000 512, 765, 000	95. 1 119. 2 88. 4 91. 1 64. 5	474, 202, 000 456, 880, 000 445, 602, 000 383, 649, 000 330, 862, 000	931 1245 91 946 605	109 1 129 941 991 761	101 123 108 85 85	1125 140 1135 941 901	186, 321, 514 121, 892, 389 147, 811, 316 111, 534, 182 132, 570, 366	37. 4 31. 8 29. 3 26. 5 25. 9
1885 1886 1887	36, 806, 000	10. 4 12. 4 12. 1	357, 112, 000 457, 218, 000 456, 329, 000	77. 1 68. 7 68. 1	275, 320, 000 314, 226, 000 810, 613, 000	827 75 75	89 79 <u>1</u> 7 91	721 801 811 Digitize	891	94, 565, 793 153, 804, 969 119, 625, 344	26.9 33.6 26.2

^{*} Galicia and Bukowina not included.

nchester bushels. Poland not included.

TABLE 14.—Wheat: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849–1917—Continued.

		Aver-	:	Aver-		bu	shel, N	sh pric o. I no	e per	Domestic exports, in-	Per
Year.	Acreage harvested.	yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		wing sy.	cluding flour, fiscal year beginning July 1.	of crop ex- port- ed.
						Low.	High.	Low.	High.		
	Acres.	Bush.	Bushels.	Cents.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels.	P. ct.
1888 1889	37, 336, 000 38, 124, 000	11. 1 12. 9	415, 868, 000 490, 560, 000	92. 6 69. 8	385, 248, 000 342, 492, 000	964 764	105	771 801	95½ 100	88, 600, 743 109, 430, 467	21.3 22.3
1889	33, 580, 000	13.9	468, 574, 000			ļ					
1890 1891	36,087,000 39,917,000	11. 1 15. 3	899, 262, 000 611, 781, 000	83. 8 83. 9	834,774,000 513,473,000	871 801	928	987 80	1081 851	106, 181, 316 225, 665, 811	26. 6 36. 9
1892	38, 554, 000	13.4	515,947,000	62.4	322, 112, 000	691	78	681	76₹	191, 912, 635	37.2
1893 1894	34, 629, 000 34, 882, 000	11.4 13.2	396, 132, 000 460, 267, 000	53. 8 49. 1	213, 171, 000 225, 902, 000	50 52	64	52 60	85	164, 283, 129 144, 812, 718	41.5 31.5
1895	34,047,000	13.7	467, 103, 000	50.9	237, 939, 000	532	642	571	674	126, 443, 968	27.1
1896 1897	34, 619, 000 39, 465, 000	12.4 13.4	427, 684, 000 530, 149, 000	72. 6 80. 8	310, 598, 000 428, 547, 000	741 92	93 [68 1	97 185	145, 124, 972 217, 306, 005	33.9 41.0
1898	44,055,000	15.3	675, 149, 000	58.2	392,770,000	621	70	681	791	222, 618, 420	83.0
1899 1899	44,593,000 52,589,000	12.3 12.5	547, 304, 000 658, 534, 000	58.4	319, 545, 000	64	694	63	67	186, 096, 762	34.0
1900	42, 495, 000	12.8	522, 230, 000	61.9	323, 515, 000	601	74	70	751	215, 990, 073	41.4
1901 1902	49, 896, 000	15.0 14.5	748, 460, 000 670, 063, 000	62.4	467, 360, 000 422, 224, 000	73 717	79 72	721 741	76 1	234, 772, 516 202, 905, 598	31. 4 30. 3
1903	46, 202, 000 49, 465, 000	12.9	637, 822, 000	69.5	443, 025, 000	77	87	87	101	120, 727, 613	18.9
1904	44,075,000	12.5	552, 400, 000	92.4	510, 490, 000	115	122	891	113	44, 112, 910	8.0
1905	47, 854, 000	14.5	692, 979, 000 735, 261, 000	74. 8 66. 7	518,373,000	821	90	801	871	97, 609, 007	14.1 20.0
1906 1907	47,306,000 45,211,000	15.5 14.0	634, 087, 000	87.4	490, 333, 000 554, 437, 000			84	106	146, 700, 425 163, 043, 669	25.7
1908 1909	47, 557, 000 46, 723, 000	14. 0 15. 8	664, 602, 000 737, 189, 000	92.8	616, 826, 000	106	112	1261	137	114, 268, 468	17.2
1909	44,282,000	15.4	683, 379,000	98. 6	668, 680, 000	106	1192	100	119	87,364,318	12.8
19101	45, 681, 000	13.9	635, 121, 000	88.3	561,051,000	104	110	98	106	69,311,760	10.9
1911 1912	49,543,000 45,814,000	12.5 15.9	621, 338, 000 730, 267, 000	87.4 76.0	543,063,000 555,280,000	105 85	110	115 904	122 96	79, 689, 404 142, 879, 596	12.8 19.6
1913	50, 184, 000	15. 2	763, 380, 000	79. 9	610, 122, 000	891	93	96	100	145, 590, 349	19.1
1914	53, 541, 000	16.6	891,017,000	98.6	878, 680, 000	115	131	141	164	332, 464, 975	37.3
1915 1916	60, 469, 000 52, 316, 000	17.0 12.2	1,025,801,000 636,318,000	91. 9 160. 3	942, 303, 000 1,019,968,000	106 1554	1281 190	116 258	126 340	243, 117, 026 203, 578, 699	23.7 32.0
1917	45,941,000	14. 2	650, 828, 000	200. 9	1,307,418,000	220	220				

¹ Figures adjusted to census basis.

Table 15.—Winter and spring wheat: Acreage, production, and farm value Dec. 1, by States in 1917, and United States totals, 1890-1917.

		V	Vinter whee	st.		Spring wheat.						
State and year.	Acreage.	Average yield per acre. Production. Average farm value price acre. Farm value price Dec. 1.		Farm value	Acreage.	A ver- age yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	A verage farm price Dec.1.	Farm value Dec. 1,			
Ме	Acres.	Bu.	Bushels.	Cts.	Dollars.	A cres. 11,000		Bushels. 154,000		Dollars. 362,000		
Vt N. Y	430,000	19.5	8,385,000	210	17,608,000	3,000	20.0	60,000	236	142,000		
N. J	89,000				3,602,000			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •				
Pa	1,399,000				50, 188, 000							
Del	131,000 675,000 1,280,000 315,000 930,600	17.0 14.0 14.0	11, 475, 000 17, 920, 000 4, 410, 000	207 216 217	4,497,000 23,753,000 38,707,000 9,570,000			Digitized by		ogle.		

TABLE 15. — Winter and spring wheat: Acreage, production, and farm value Dec. 1, by States in 1917, and United States totals, 1890–1917—Continued.

		V	Vinter whe	at.			8	Spring whee	ıt.	
State and year.	Acreage.	A ver- age yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	Average farm price Dec.1.	Farm value Dec. 1.	Acreage.	A ver- age yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	Average farm price Dec.1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
8. C	Acres. 175,000	Bu. 10.5	Bushels. 1.838.000	Cts. 290	Dollars. 5.330.000	Acres.	Bu.	Bushels.	Cts.	Dollars.
Ga	244,000	8.5	2,074,000	290	6,015,000			Duences.		
Ohio Ind	1,870,000	22.0	41,140,000	204 203	83,926,000	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••			
S. C. Ga Ohio Ind Ill	1,600,000	8.5 22.0 18.5 19.0	1,838,000 2,074,000 41,140,000 33,392,000 30,400,000	201	61, 104, 000		~			
					31, 028, 000					
Wis	93,000	24.0	2, 232, 000	202	4,509,000	146,000	21.2	3,095,000 56,525,000 5,375,000	202	6, 252, 000 114, 180, 000 10, 696, 000
Minn Town	170,000	18.0 17.5	1,440,090 2 975 000	202	2,909,000 5 930 000	3, 230, 000	17.5	56,525,000	100	114, 180, 00
Mich Wis Minn Iowa Mo	1,800,000	15.3	15, 210, 000 2, 232, 000 1, 440, 000 2, 975, 000 27, 540, 000	199 195	31,028,000 4,509,000 2,909,000 5,920,000 53,703,000	250,000	#1.5	5, 575, 000		
N Dok						2 000 000	8.0	56, 000, 000	200	112,000,000 98,674,000 12,870,000 523,000
B. Dak	120,000	14.0	1,680,000	196 195 198	3,293,000	7,000,000 8,596,000 400,000 44,000	14.0	56,000,000 50,344,000 6,600,000 264,000	196	98, 674, 000
Nebr Kans	2 713 000	12.0 12.3	7,164,000	195	18,970,000	400,000	16.5	6,600,000	195	12,870,000
S. Dak Nebr Kans Ky	750,000	12.0	1,680,000 7,164,000 45,670,000 9,000,000	212	3,293,000 13,970,000 90,427,000 19,080,000	12,000	0.0	201,000	1360	023,000
Ala	93,000	10.0	930,000	270	2,511,000					
Miss	14,000	15.0	210,000	300	630,000					
Tenn Ala Miss Tex	3,100,000	12.0 11.5	4,830,000 930,000 210,000 16,200,000 35,650,000	210 194	69, 161, 000		•••••			
	212 222									
Ark	210,000 805,000	16.0	3,360,000 7,865,000 1,500,000	201 192	6,754,000	1 199 000		10 008 000	102	10 288 000
Mont Wyo Colo	75,000	13.0 20.0	1,500,000	200	3,000,000	123,000	22.0	2,706,000	200	19,388,000 5,412,000 11,209,000
Colo	210,000 605,000 75,000 336,000	23.0	7,728,000	193	6,754,000 15,101,000 3,000,000 14,915,000	264,000	22.0	10,098,000 2,706,000 5,808,000	193	11,209,000
N. Mex	134 000		1,340,000	215				1, 242, 000		2, 670, 000
Ariz	134,000 33,000 230,000	25.0	825,000	210	1,732,000					
Ariz Utah Nev	230,000 4,000	14.0 26.0	1,340,000 825,000 3,220,000 104,000	178 180	2,881,000 1,732,000 5,732,000 187,000	90,000 87,000	27.0 28.0	2,430,000 1,086,000	180	4,325,000 1,865,000
Idaho Wash	810,000 505,000 420,000	18.0 21.5	5,580,000 10,858,000 8,400,000	182	10, 156, 000 20, 956, 000 15, 288, 000 14, 850, 000	375,000 1,350,000 401,000	22.0 13.6	8, 250, 000 18, 360, 000 4, 411, 000	193	15,015,000 35,435,000 8,028,000
Wash Oreg	420,000	20.0	8,400,000	198 182	15, 288, 000	401,000	11.0	4,411,000	182	8,028,000
Cal	875,000	19.8	7, 425, 000	200	14,850,000	• • • • • • • • •		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••	
	27, 430, 000		418, 070, 00 0		848, 372, 000			232, 758, 000		459, 046, 000
1916	34, 709, 000	13.8	480, 553, 000	162.7	781,906,000 638,149,000 675,623,000 433,995,000 323,572,000 379,151,000 382,318,000	17,607,000	8.8	155, 765, 000 351, 854, 900 206, 027, 000 239, 819, 000 330, 348, 000 190, 682, 000 200, 979, 000	152.8	238, 062, 000 304, 154, 000 203, 057, 000
1915	41,308,000	16.3	480, 553, 000 673, 947, 000 684, 990, 000	94.7	638, 149, 000	19, 161, 000	18.4	351, 854, 900	86.4	304, 154, 000
913	31, 699,000	16.5	523, 561, 000	95.0 82.0	433, 995, 000	17,533,000	13.0	239 819 000	73.4	176, 127, 000
912	26,571,000	15.1	399, 919, 000	80.9	323, 572, 000	19, 243, 000	17.2	330, 348, 000	70.1	231, 708, 600
911	29, 162, 000	14.8	523, 561, 000 399, 919, 000 430, 656, 000 434, 142, 000	88.0	379, 151, 000	20, 881, 000	9.4	190, 682, 000	86.0	176, 127, 060 231, 708, 600 163, 912, 060 178, 733, 000
	21,020,000	10.8	207, 172, 000	00.1	302, 310, 000	10,002,000	11.0		00.9	110,100,000
909 1 908 907 906 905	27, 151,000	15.5	419,735,000 437,908,000 409,442,000 492,888,000 428,403,000	102.4	426, 184, 000 410, 330, 000 361, 217, 000 336, 435, 000 334, 987, 000	17,111,000	15.4	263,646,000 226,694,000	92.5	242, 496, 000 206, 496, 000 193, 220, 000 153, 898, 000 183, 386, 000
907	28, 132, 000	14.6	409, 442, 000	88.2	361, 217, 000	17, 208, 000	13.2	224, 645, 000	86.0	193, 220, 000
906	29, 600, 000	16.7	492, 888, 000	68.3	336, 435, 000	17,706,000	13.7	224, 645, 000 242, 373, 000 264, 517, 000	63.5	153, 898, 000
904	26,866,000	12.4	332, 935, 000	97.8	325, 611, 000	17, 209, 000	12.8	219, 464, 000	84.2	184, 879, 000
903	32, 511, 000	12.3	399, 867, 000	71.6	286, 243, 000	16,954,000	14.0	237, 955, 000	65.9	156, 782, 000
901	30, 240, 000	15.2	458, 835, 000	66.1	303, 227, 000	19,656,000	14.7	289, 626, 000	56.7	164, 133, 000
904	26, 236, 00 0	13.3	332, 935, 000 399, 867, 000 411, 789, 000 458, 835, 000 350, 025, 000	63.3	325, 611, 000 286, 243, 000 266, 727, 000 303, 227, 000 221, 668, 000	16, 259, 000	10.6	219, 464, 000 237, 955, 000 258, 274, 000 289, 626, 000 172, 204, 000	59.1	184, 879, 000 156, 782, 000 155, 497, 000 164, 133, 000 101, 847, 000
899	25, 358, 000	11.5	291, 706, 000	63.0	183, 767, 000	19, 235, 000	13.3	255, 598, 000	53.1	135, 778, 000
898	25, 745, 000	14.9	382, 492, 000	62.2	237, 736, 000	18,310,000	16.0	292, 657, 000	53.0	155, 034, 000
897	22, 926, 000	14.1	323, 616, 000	85.1	275, 323, 000	16,539,000	12.5	206, 533, 000	74.2	153, 224, 900
899	22, 794, 000 22, 609, 000	11.6	291, 706, 000 382, 492, 000 323, 616, 000 267, 934, 000 261, 242, 000	57.8	183, 767, 000 237, 736, 000 275, 323, 000 206, 270, 000 150, 944, 000	11, 438, 000	18.0	255, 598, 000 292, 657, 000 206, 533, 000 159, 750, 000 205, 861, 000	42.3	135, 778, 000 155, 034, 000 153, 224, 900 104, 328, 000 86, 996, 000
								100 000 000		
894	23,519,000	14.0	329, 290, 000 278, 469, 000 359, 416, 000 405, 116, 900	49.8	164, 022, 000 156, 720, 000 234, 037, 000 356, 415, 000 223, 362, 000	11,364,000 11,511 000	11.5	130, 977, 060 117, 662, 060 156, 531, 000 206, 665, 000 143, 890, 000	47.2	61,880,000 56,451,000 88,075,000 157,058,000
892	26, 209, 000	13.7	359, 416, 000	65.1	234, 037, 000	12, 345, 000	12.7	156, 531, 000	56.3	88,075,000
.891	27, 524, 000	14.7	405, 116, 900	88.0	356, 415, 000	12, 393, 000	16.7	206, 665, 000	76.0	157,058,000
.co:U	000,020,000 ردم	10.9	255, 374, 000	01.5	000, 000, 000	12,007,000	11.4	itized by		111,411,000

¹ Census acreage and production.

TABLE 16.—Winter and spring wheat: Yield per acre in States producing both, for 10 years.

WINTER WHEAT.

				Y	leld per	acre (b	ushels).			•	
State.	10-year aver., 1908- 1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917
Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa South Dakota Nebraska.	20. 4 17. 4 20. 9 15. 2 17. 4	19. 5 21. 0 17. 8	20. 4 21. 6 19. 4	20. 0 21. 2 16. 5	17. 5 19. 7 13. 8	19. 5 23. 0 18. 0	20. 1 16. 2 23. 4 9. 0 18. 6	21. 5 19. 5 21. 6 14. 0 19. 3	23. 0 19. 5 21. 5 20. 5 18. 5	19. 0 14. 0 18. 5 18. 5 20. 0	24. 0 18. 0 17. 5 14. 0 12. 0
Kansas Montana Wyoming Colorado New Mexico	13. 8 24. 5 25. 2 23. 4 19. 6	12. 8 25. 0	14. 5 32. 5 32. 5 29. 7	14. 2 22. 0 25. 0 23. 0 20. 0	10. 8 31. 7 26. 0 18. 0 25. 0	15. 5 24. 5 28. 0 24. 5 20. 0	13. 0 25. 6 25. 0 21. 1 18. 6	20. 5 23. 0 24. 0 25. 0 25. 0	12.5 27.0 26.0 26.0 22.0	12. 0 21. 5 21. 0 20. 0 16. 5	12. 3 13. 0 20. 0 23. 0 10. 0
Utah	21. 8 25. 2 26. 9 25. 5 22. 7	23. 0 30. 0 24. 5 23. 2	24. 0 24. 0 29. 0 25. 8 21. 0	20. 5 24. 0 23. 7 20. 5 23. 7	20. 0 23. 0 31. 5 27. 3 22. 2	24. 0 27. 5 28. 7 27. 6 26. 8	23. 0 23. 0 27. 4 27. 0 21. 4	25. 0 29. 0 27. 5 26. 5 22. 0	25. 0 26. 0 29. 0 27. 6 24. 0	20. 0 24. 5 24. 0 26. 5 23. 0	14. 0 26. 0 18. 0 21. 5 20. 0
United States	15.7	14. 4	15.8	15. 9	14.8	15. 1	16. 5	19.0	16. 3	13. 8	15. 2
			SPR	ING V	HEAT	r.					
Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa South Dakota Nebraska	18. 4 14. 0 16. 4 11. 3 13. 4	17. 5 12. 8 15. 5 12. 8 13. 0	19.0 16.8 14.7 14.1 14.0	18. 7 16. 0 20. 9 12. 8 13. 9	14.5 10.1 13.8 4.0 10.0	18. 5 15. 5 17. 0 14. 2 14. 1	18.6 16.2 17.0 9.0 12.0	17. 0 10. 5 13. 5 9. 0 11. 5	22. 5 17. 0 16. 7 17. 0 16. 0	16. 6 7. 5 13. 0 6. 3 12. 5	21. 2 17. 5 21. 5 14. 0 16. 5
Kansas	9. 7 21. 5 25. 1 22. 2 21. 6	5. 5 24. 2 25. 5 21. 0 25. 0	11.5 28.8 27.0 29.4 24.5	8. 4 22. 0 25. 0 21. 9 20. 0	4. 2 25. 2. 26. 0 19. 5 20. 5	15. 0 23. 5 29. 2 24. 0 22. 0	8. 5 21. 5 25. 0 21. 0 19. 0	15.0 17.0 22.0 22.5 23.0	12. 0 26. 0 27. 0 21. 0 22. 5	10. 5 18. 0 22. 0 19. 5 21. 5	6. 6 9. 0 22. 0 22. 0 18. 0
Utah	27. 0 30. 3 25. 3 18. 6 17. 7	27. 5 30. 0 25. 4 15 0 16. 5	28. 5 28. 7 26. 0 20. 6 18. 7	25.3 29.0 20.4 14.5 18.0	27. 0 32. 5 29. 0 19. 5 17. 7	29. 2 30. 2 28. 3 20. 4 19. 5	28. 0 31. 0 28. 0 19. 0 19. 5	25. 0 30. 0 24. 0 20. 0 16. 5	28. 0 32. 0 26. 5 22. 2 17. 0	25. 0 31. 5 23. 5 21. 5 23. 0	27. 0 28. 0 22. 0 13. 6 11. 0
United States	13. 1	13. 2	15.8	11.0	9.4	17. 2	13. 0	11.8	18. 4	8.8	12.6

TABLE 17.—All wheat: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916 and 1917.

State.	Thousand	s of acres.	Production sands of l	on (thou- bushels).	Total value, basis Dec. 1 price (thousands of dollars).		
·	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	
Maine.	3 1	5 1 400	154 60 8,385	135 25 8, 400	362 142 17, 608	252 41	
New York New Jersey Pennsylvania	89	90 1,375	1,691 24,482	1,800 26,125	3,602 50,188	14, 112 2, 952 42, 322	
Delaware	675 1,280	124 650 1,200 305	2,162 11,475 17,920 4,410	1,860 10,400 15,240 4,422	4,497 23,753 38,707 9,570	3,013 17,784 25,146	
West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina.	930	870 210	9,765 1.838	9, 135 2, 226	22,850 5,330	7,075 16,078 4,207	
Georgia Ohio Indiana Illinois	244 1,870 1,805	334 1,600 1,620 1,525	2,074 41,140 33,392 30,400	3,808 21,600 19,440	6,015 83,926 67,786 61,104	7,083 36,504 32,854 27,679	

Table 17.—All wheat: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916 and 1917—Continued.

State.	Thousand	ls of acres.		on (thou- bushels).	Total value basis Dec. 1 price (thousands of dollars).		
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	
Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Lowa Missouri	845	800	15, 210	13, 280	31,028	22, 178	
	239	188	5, 327	3, 315	10,761	5, 304	
	3,310	3,465	57, 965	26, 410	117,089	42, 784	
	420	560	8, 350	9, 150	16,616	14, 274	
	1,800	1,950	27, 540	16, 575	53,703	27, 349	
North Dakota	7,000	7,150	56,000	39, 325	112,000	59, 774	
	3,716	3,650	52,024	24, 825	101,967	37, 237	
	997	3,540	13,764	68, 550	26,840	109, 680	
	3,757	8,170	45,934	97, 980	90,950	160, 687	
	750	890	9,000	8, 010	19,080	13, 297	
Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi Texas Oklahoma.	525	830	4,830	7, 885	10,723	13, 326	
	93	110	930	1, 045	2,511	1, 933	
	14	6	210	90	630	158	
	1,350	1,200	16,200	13, 200	34,020	22, 836	
	3,100	3,060	35,660	29, 585	69,161	49, 407	
Arkansas. Montana Wyoming. Colorado.	210	235	3,360	1,880	6,754	3,064	
	1,727	1,485	17,963	28,655	34,489	46,134	
	198	170	4,206	8,670	8,412	5,322	
	600	600	13,536	11,885	26,124	17,828	
New Mexico	203	118	2,582	2,104	5,551	8, 156	
	33	40	825	1,160	1,732	1, 740	
	320	326	5,650	6,900	10,057	10, 488	
	41	55	1,140	1,592	2,062	2, 220	
Idaho	685	634	13,830	15,071	25, 171	22,004	
Washington	1,855	1,590	29,218	37,635	56, 391	53,818	
Oregon	821	850	12,811	19,550	23, 316	28,347	
California	375	350	7,425	5,600	14, 850	8,512	
United States	45, 941	52,316	650, 828	636,318	1,307,418	1,019,968	

TABLE 18.—Wheat: Production and distribution in the United States, 1897-1917. [000 omitted.]

Year.	Old stock on farms July 1.	Crop.	Total supplies.	Stock on farms Mar. 1 following.	Shipped out of county where grown.
1897	17, 839 64, 061 50, 900	Bushels. 530, 149 675, 149 547, 304 522, 230 748, 460	Bushels. 553, 496 692, 988 611, 365 573, 130 779, 012	Bushels. 121, 320 198, 056 158, 746 128, 098 173, 353	Bushels. 269, 126 398, 882 305, 020 281, 372 372, 717
1902	42,540 36,634 24,257	670, 063 637, 822 552, 400 692, 979 735, 261	722,500 680,362 589,034 717,236 781,314	164, 047 132, 608 111, 055 158, 403 206, 642	388, 554 369, 582 302, 771 404, 092 427, 253
1907. 1908. 1909. 1910.	54, 853 33, 797 15, 062 35, 680 34, 071	634, 087 664, 602 683, 379 635, 121 621, 338	688, 940 698, 399 698, 441 670, 801 655, 409	148, 721 143, 692 159, 100 162, 705 122, 025	367, 607 393, 435 414, 165 352, 906 348, 821
1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917	23, 876 35, 515 32, 236 28, 972 74, 731 15, 611	730, 267 763, 380 891, 017 1, 025, 801 436, 318 650, 828	754, 143 798, 895 923, 253 1, 054, 773 711, 049 666, 439	156, 483 151, 809 152, 903 244, 448 100, 650	449, 906 411, 753 541, 198 633, 380 361, 088

TABLE 19.-Wheat: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1. and value per acre, by States.

				Yie	ld p	erac	re (b	ushe	els).			F	arm		per nts).	bush	el	per	alue racre llars.)
State.	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916.	1917
MeVt. N. Y N. J	25.9 20.6 18.4	23. (17. 5 17. 8	25.0 21.0 17.9	29.1 23. 18.	3 27.8 7 19.4 5 17.4	5 25.0 5 16.0 1 18.5	24.5 20.0 17.6	29.0 22.5 18.0	30.0 5 25.0 20.0	27. 0 25. 0 21. 0 20. 0 19. 0	14.0 20.0 19.5 19.0 17.5	123 118	101 100 93 96 91	109 100 108 109 104	107 101	187 165 168 164 162	236 210 213	30.2 23.8 21.7	5 32, 96 7 47, 26 5 40, 96 3 40, 47 8 35, 86
Del	16.3 12.8 13.6	16.4 11.4 13.0	14.8	17.4 12.1 12.1	15.8 12.6 11.5	15.0 11.6 14.5	13.3 13.6 13.0	21. 8 14. 8 15. (16.1 13.8 15.0	$12.7 \\ 14.5$	16.5 17.0 14.0 14.0 10.5	116 120 121	88 89 96 100 106	109 106 108 108 117	109 105 108 108 120	162 171 165 160 176	207 216 217	18.6 15.2 16.6	1 34. 33 3 35. 16 6 30. 24 5 30. 38 8 24. 56
8. C	10.6 16.4 15.4	9.2 16.6 16.6	10.0 15.9 15.3	10. 8 16. 2 15. 6	12.0 2 16.0 3 14.7	9.3 8.0 8.0	12. 2 18. 0 18. 5	12.1 18.5 17.4	11.0 20.3 17.2	11.4 13.5 12.0	10.5 8.5 22.0 18.5 19.0	149 116 114	130 120 90 88 86	145 134 105 103 101	138 129 104 102 100	189 186 169 169 165	290 204 203	15.5 17.4 15.8	1 30, 44 2 24, 64 8 44, 85 9 37, 56 4 38, 19
Mich Wis Minn Iowa Mo	19.3 14.0 18.7	18.2 12.8 17.2	19. 5 16. 8 17. 0	19.3 16.0 21.0	3 15.9 0 10.1 0 16.4	19.0 15.5 19.8	19.3 16.2 20.6	19. 1 10. 6 18. 6	22.7 17.0 20.0	17.6 7.6 16.3	18.0 22.3 17.5 19.9 15.3	109 108 105	89 82 76 76 84	103 100 102 96 98	101 95 90 87 98	167 160 162 156 165	202 202 199	20.0 12.4 18.2	5 36, 72 8 45, 04 1 35, 34 0 39, 60 7 29, 84
N. Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans	11.4 17.1	12.8 17.2	14.1	12.8	4. 0 2 13. 4	14.2	9.0	9.1	17.1	6.8	8.0 14.0 13.8 12.2 12.0	103 101 106	73 71 71 79 96	101 94 95 95 103	87 86 84 89 105	152 150 160 164 166	196 195 198	9.9 17.7 14.4	2 16.00 3 27.44 9 26.91 0 24.16 9 25.44
Tenn	11.1 11.2 14.0	10.0 11.5	10.4	11.7 12.0	11.8	10.5	12.0	15.5 13.0	10.5	9.5 9.5 15.0	9.2 10.0 15.0 12.0 11.5	121 140 134 119 107	98 115 95 94 82	105 126 125 99 92	108 125 105 107 89	169 185 175 173 167	270 300 210	14.8 17.6 15.7	9 20, 42 8 27, 00 9 45, 00 8 25, 20 5 22, 31
Ark Mont Wyo	11.8 23.0 25.1	10.0 24.2	11. 4 30. 8	13.9	10.5	10.0 24.1	13.0 23.8	13.0	12.5 26.5	8.0 19.3	16.0 10.4 21.2 22.6	114 99 104 101	90 66 72 78	99 91 89 87	101 78 78 80	163 161 145 150	192 200	$\frac{20.2}{22.6}$	32, 16 19, 97 42, 40 6 43, 62
N. Mex Ariz Utah Nev	27.6	26. 7	25.0	22.3	3 29. €	30, 7	32.0	28.0	28.0	29.0	12.7 25.0 17.7 27.8	114 129 98 111	97 110 73 82	90 125 86 95	90 115 86 95	150 150 152 140	210 178	35, 9; 22, 5	27.30 52.00 531.51 250.04
Idaho Wash Oreg Cal.	$\frac{21.7}{21.2}$	18.8 20.8	23. 2 20. 2	16.9	22.7	23.5 25.0	$\frac{23.2}{21.0}$	23.5	25.7 22.2	23.7	20. 2 15. 8 15. 6 19. 8	92 98 100 113	63 73 75 95	87 100 102 104	80 82 84 95	146 143 145 152	193 182	22.2 21.3	36, 76 30, 49 28, 39 39, 60
U. S	14.7	14.0	15.8	13.8	12.5	15.9	15. 2	16.6	17.0	12,2	14, 2	107.5	79.9	98, 6	91.9	160.3	200, 9	15. 1	28.46

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

Table 20.—Winter and spring wheat: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1890–1918.

		W	inter whe	eat.			Spring	wheat.	
Year	December of pre- vious year.	April.	Мау.	June.	When har- vested.	June.	July.	August.	When har- vested.
1890. 1891. 1892. 1893. 1894.	98. 4 85. 3 87. 4	P. ct. 81. 0 96. 9 81. 2 77. 4 86. 7	P. ct. 80.0 97.9 84.0 75.4 81.4	P. ct. 78.1 96.6 88.8 75.5 83.2	P. ct. 76.2 96.2 89.6 77.7 83.9	P. ct. 91.3 92.6 92.3 86.4 88.0	P. ct. 94. 4 94. 1 90. 9 74. 1 68. 4	P. ct. 83. 2 95. 5 87. 3 67. 0 67. 1	P. cl. 79. 7 97. 2 81. 2 68. 9 69. 9
1895. 1896. 1897. 1808.	81. 4 99. 5	81. 4 77. 1 81. 4 86. 7 77. 9	82.9 82.7 80.2 86.5 76.2	71. 1 77. 9 78. 5 90. 8 67. 8	65. 8 75. 6 81. 2 85. 7 65. 6	97. 8 99. 9 89. 6 100. 9 91. 4	102. 2 93. 3 91. 2 95. 0 91. 7	95. 9 78. 9 86. 7 96. 5 83. 6	94. 9 73. 8 80. 8 91. 7 77. 2
1900. 1901. 1902. 1903.	97. 1 86. 7	82. 1 91. 7 78. 7 97. 3 76. 5	88. 9 94. 1 76. 4 92. 6 76. 5	82. 7 87. 8 76. 1 82. 2 77. 7	80. 8 88. 3 77. 0 78. 8 78. 7	87. 8 92. 0 95. 4 95. 9 93. 4	55. 2 95. 6 92. 4 82. 5 93. 7	56. 4 80. 3 89. 7 77. 1 87. 5	56.1 78.4 87.2 78.1 66.2
1905. 1906. 1907. 1908.	94.1 94.1 91.1	91. 6 89. 1 89. 9 91. 3 82. 2	92. 5 90. 9 82. 9 89. 0 83. 5	85. 5 82. 7 77. 4 86. 0 80. 7	82. 7 85. 6 78. 3 80. 6 82. 4	98. 7 93. 4 88. 7 95. 0 95. 2	91. 0 91. 4 87. 2 89. 4 92. 7	89. 2 86. 9 79. 4 80. 7 91. 6	87.3 83.4 77.1 77.6 88.6
1910	82.5	80. 8 83. 3 80. 6 91. 6	82. 1 86. 1 79. 7 91. 9	80. 0 80. 4 74. 8 83. 5	81. 5 76. 8 73. 3 81. 6	92. 8 94. 6 95. 8 93. 5	61. 6 73. 8 89. 3 73. 8	61. 0 59. 8 90. 4 74. 1	63. 1 56. 7 90. 8 75. 3
1914	88. 3 87. 7 85. 7	95. 6 88. 8 78. 3 63. 4	95.9 92.9 82.4 73.2	92. 7 85. 8 73. 2 70. 9	94.1 84.4 75.7 75.9	95.5 94.9 88.2 91.6	92. 1 93. 3 89. 0 83. 6	75. 5 93. 4 63. 4 68. 7	68.0 94.6 48.6 71.2

TABLE 21.—Winter wheat: Per cent of area sown which was abandoned (not harvested).

Year.	Per cent.	Year.	Per cent.	Year.	Per cent.
1902 1903 1904 1905 1906	2. 8 15. 4 4. 6 5. 5	1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913	7. 5 13. 7 10. 7 20. 1	1914 1915 1916 1917	2.7 11.4

Table 22.—Wheat: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.	United States.		North Atlantic States.		South Atlantic States.		N. Ce States of Mis	s east	N. Ce States of Mis		South Central States.		Far West- ern States.	
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
January	Cts. 150.3 164.8 164.4 180.0 245.9 248.5 220.1 228.9 209.7	113. 9 102. 9 98. 6 102. 5 100. 0	174. 3 174. 6 190. 4 254. 6 266. 4 236. 4 215. 9	121. 7 113. 6 109. 7 111. 6 105. 8 99. 5 108. 9	176. 9 178. 1 192. 7 264. 8 273. 5 234. 4 227. 3	123. 1 117. 9 117. 7 115. 6 109. 5 115. 0	173. 3 174. 7 187. 5 259. 1 257. 5 221. 3 221. 3	121. 0 109. 6 104. 7 109. 0 104. 9 99. 4 114. 4	163. 7 163. 8 182. 8 249. 9 242. 3	99. 6 97. 0 102. 1 99. 1 92. 0 108. 5	176. 1 170. 7 187. 8 259. 5 262. 1 221. 5 246. 5	110.6 109.4 103.4 104.9 108.4 92.0 109.4	150. 8 149. 6 150. 2 214. 9 236. 5 214. 0 201. 7	91.0
October November December	200. 6 200. 0 200. 9	136. 3	205.6 207.7	138. 4 166. 0	225.3	140. 8 164. 5	203. 8 204. 2	143.5	199. 1 198. 0 198. 5	136. 0 159. 5 159. 7	202. 1 203. 1 203. 6	142-4 167. 1 168. 6	191. 0 189. 2 198. 6	138. 2 149. 1
Average	201.1	126. 7	202.5	132. 6	217.8	132. 4	205. 2	128.3	198. 5	126.6	220. 8	123.3	188.2	119.8

TABLE 23 .- Wheat: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1917.

•	New	York.	Balti	more.	Chic	ago.	Det	roit.	8t. I	ouis.		neap- is.		Fran- co.
Date.		No. 2 red winter. ¹		No. 2 red.		north- pring.	No.	2 red.		2 red iter.		north- n.		e (per bs.). ²
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cts. 981 1031	Cts. 127 118‡	Cts. 951 941	Cts. 116½ 106	Cts. 107 85	Cts. 122 116	Cts. 951 1011	Cts. 120 112	Cts. 924 94	Cts. 1251 1151	Cts. 1031 801	Cts. 1187 1127	Cts. 150 140	Cts. 190 165
1913. JanJune July-Dec	107 94	1141 107	105 3 891	1091 961	87 <u>1</u> 85	96 95 <u>1</u>	1021 871	1161 1021	93 83	115 974	821 801	804 934	155 155	1821 1721
1914. JanJune July-Dec	871 861	111 7 136	83 822	108 127	89 88 <u>1</u>	100 133	86 <u>1</u> 80	991 1271	75 2 76	991 1271	84 § 85 §	981 1291	151 1 152	165 200
1915. JanJune July-Dec	126 108‡	178 1441	111 100 1	1681 1271	123 99	167 1532	114 1 106	165 132	110 106	164 129	1147 89	165 4 155	165 140	240 185
1916. January February March April May June	1381 1301 1301 1201 1241 1132	1561 154 139 143 136 1321	123 116 1121 1141 104 1001	1411 1371 1191 123 1191 1051	1192 112 1098 1182 116 1062	139½ 138 123 128 126 118	122 1111 1102 117 1082 103	137 1354 1184 124 1234 1134	122 116 112 116 106 106	143 142 122 1301 125 114	1187 108 108 117 117 113	1381 1361 1201 1261 1281 1161	150 160 160 160 160 160	190 185 175 170 170 170
JanJune.	1131	1561	1001	1411	106}	1394	103	137	106	143	1061	1381	150	190
July	123½ 144 168½ 185½ 198 183	143 179 184 209 215 206	1024 1254 1484 1564 174 159	126 157 157 1921 1931 183	110 1261 150 164 165 1551	1317 1641 1711 202 200 190	104 130 144 157 173 157	1291 1541 156 188 1891 1831	109 129 147 158 177 168	136½ 165 172 195 196 187	1077 1279 152 1691 177 1597	132 165 167 199 200 188	160 160 185 185 240 250	185 210 225 275 290 290
July-Dec	1231	215	1024	1931	110	202	104	1891	109	196	1077	200	160	290
1917. January February March April May June	207 197 216 2231 2791 (*)	226 2201 238 292 320 (*)	1841 1684 1944 2154 2744 220	203 1971 213 306 342 283	1781 1621 1831 2052 258 249	205 199 213 295 1 340 310	178½ 171 192 213 267 245	1961 1941 210 300 340 295	183 171 194 221 265 222	206 202 220 310 342 298	175 166 184 203 247 222	199 193 211 286 339 315	250 250 250 275 450 (*)	285 285 300 450 500 (*)
JanJune.	197	320	1681	342	1621	340	171	340	171	342	166	839	250	500
July	(*) 2229 229 229 229 229	(3) (3) 231 229 229 229 229	209 212 222 222 222 222 222	240 238 226 224 224 224 224	217 223 220 220 220 220 220 220	300 300 200 220 220 220 220	225 215 219 217 217 217	255 250 220 219 219 219 219	210 214 215 215 215 215 215	273 257½ 227 215 215 215 215	2284 215 215 215 215 215 215 215	295 305 221 - 215 215 215 215	330 340 340 350 350 350	360 390 365 350 350 350
July-Dec	229	231	209	240	217	300	215	255	210	273	215	305	330	390

* Nominal.

No. 1 northern spring in 1916-17.
 Northern club, in 1913. White, subsequent to 1913.

TABLE 24.—Wheat flour: Wholesale price per barrel, 1912-1917.

		Chic	ago.		Cinci	nnati.	New	York.	8t. I	ouis.
Date.	Winter	patents.	Spring	patents.	Winter	family.	Spring	patents.	Winter	patents.
	Low.	High.	Low.	Пigh.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Dolls. 3.75 4.50	Dolls. 5.45 5.30	Dolls. 4.50 4.00	Dolls. 5.60 5.30	Dolls. 3.40 4.00	Dolls. 4.50 4.50	Dolls. 4.25 4.50	Dolls. 5 50 5.20	Dolls. 4.40 4.20	Dolls. 5.85 5.60
1913. JanJune July-Dec	4.30 3.90	5. 10 4. 35	4.10 4.00	5.60 5.50	3.25 2.90	4. 15 3. 50	4.40 4.40	5.00 5.00	4.30 3.70	5. 15 4. 55
1914. JanJune July-Dec	3.50 3.45	4.40 5.50	4.00 4.00	5.50 6.90	3.20 3.05	3.50 4.90	4.50 4.35	5. 10 7. 0 0	3.35 3.35	4.35 5.70
1915. JanJune July-Dec	5. 10 4. 50	7.80 5.75	5.50 4.50	6.75 6.90	4.75 4.65	6.65 5.65	5.50 4.90	8. 25 7. 25	5. 10 4. 60	7.50 5.90
1916. January February March April May June	5. 65 5. 60 5. 30 5. 50 5. 30 5. 00	6.80 6.60 5.75 6.25 5.80 5.60	5.60 5.60 5.10 5.65 5.40 5.00	6. 20 6. 85 5. 65 6. 10 5. 90 5. 60	5. 15 5. 40 8. 15 5. 15 5. 10 4. 50	5. 40 5. 50 5. 35 5. 25 5. 35 5. 35	6. 25 5. 45 5. 70 6. 05 5. 80 5. 50	7.25 7.25 6.40 6.60 6.50 6.15	5. 25 5. 25 5. 10 5. 20 4. 90 4. 75	6. 10 6. 10 5. 40 5. 50 5. 35 5. 05
JanJune	5.00	6.80	5.00	6.85	4.50	5.50	5. 45	7.25	4.75	6. 10
July	5. 10 5. 10 6. 95 7. 20 8. 40 7. 80	5. 45 7. 00 7. 50 8. 50 8. 65 8. 50	5.20 5.35 7.25 7.80 9.20 7.50	5.40 7.60 8.00 9.00 9.75 9.10	4.50 4.75 6.75 6.75 7.50 7.00	5.00 7.00 7.00 7.75 8.75 8.25	5.50 6.50 7.90 8.34 9.30 8.35	6.85 8.55 8.75 9.90 10.00 9.45	4.75 5.85 7.10 7.25 8.25 7.85	6.00 7.30 7.50 8.75 9.00 8.60
July-Dec	5.10	8.65	5.20	9.75	4.50	8.75	5.50	10.00	4.75	9.00
1917. January	8. 20 8. 10 8. 20 9. 75 14. 75 13. 00	9.50 8.40 9.50 12.50 17.00 14.65	9. 10 8. 20 8. 50 10. 00 14. 25 11. 25	10.00 9.80 10.20 13.30 17.80 15.60	7.25 7.75 8.00 8.50 12.00 11.00	8.75 8.50 9.00 12.50 15.25 13.75	8. 85 8. 65 9. 40 10. 15 13. 50 12. 25	10. 20 9. 25 10. 40 13. 75 16. 75 14. 75	8. 15 7. 90 8. 40 8. 60 12. 50 10. 50	9.00 8.70 9.25 13.26 15.25 13.50
JanJune	8. 10	17.00	8. 20	17.80	7. 25	15. 25	8.65	16.75	7.90	15.25
July	10.00	12.50 12.40 10.65 10.65 10.50	11. 25 12. 00 10. 50 10. 40 10. 20 10. 30	14.00 14.00 12.00 11.40 10.85 10.70	10.50 9.50 9.50 9.50 9.70 9.70	11.50 11.50 10.00 10.00 9.90 9.70	11.75 12.00 11.25 10.85 10.65 10.45	13.75 13.50 12.25 12.00 11.55 11.35	9.80 10.00 10.15 9.95 10.00 10.20	11. 75 11. 75 10. 50 10. 50 10. 40 10. 50
July-Dec	9.85	12.50	10.20	14.00	9.50	11.50	10.45	13.75	9.80	11.75

Statistics of Wheat.

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 25. - Wheat and flour: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916

["Temporary" imports into Italy of wheat, to be used for manufacturing products for export, are included in the total imports as given in the official Italian returns. In the trade returns of Chile the item tripo mote (prepared corn) which might easily be confused with tripo (wheat) is omitted. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

		Wheat.		W	heat flou	r.	Wheat and flour.			
Country.	A verage 1909–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	Average 1909–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	Average 1909–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	
FROM—										
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Barrels .	Barrels.	Barrels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	
Argentina	89,102	92, 281	84, 321	1,365	1,305	1,623	95, 243	98, 155	91,62	
Australia	41,997	5, 617		1,719	1,500		49, 732	12,365	<u>-</u>	
Austria-Hungary	36			193			906	.		
Belgium	19,607			686			22,694			
British India	48,781	26,505		607	600		51,510	29, 207		
Bulgaria	8,840			534			11,244			
Canada	74, 247	151,900	191, 218	3,694	5,569	7,921	90,871	176,959	226,86	
Chile	2, 221	12		83	5		2,593	34		
Germany	12,214			1,986			21, 149			
Netherlands	53,397	1,807	1	222	5	10	54,394	1,830	4	
Roumania	49,106			725			52,370			
Russia	155,752	7,018	8,656	1,337	1,081	1,440	161,766	11,885	15, 13	
United States	53,316	205,830	154,050	10,443	15,681	14,379	100,310	276,393	218,75	
Other countries	16, 210	12,466		3, 154	2,586		30,412	24, 102		
Total	624, 827	503, 436		26,748	28,332		745, 194	630,930		

IMPORTS.

into—									
INTO— Belgium. Brazil British South Africa Denmark. France. Germany. Greece. Italy Japan Netherlands. Portugal. Spain. Sweden. Switzerland. United Kingdom.	73, 826 12, 283 3, 425 4, 088 38, 172 88, 982 6, 973 52, 775 2, 629 66, 396 3, 228 4, 68 6, 771 16, 558 192, 134	13, 622 3, 611 2, 334 61, 417 6, 037 82, 751 817 23, 782 4, 827 13, 647 8, 784 17, 726 165, 179	15, 574 3, 772 82, 841 67, 260 644 27, 651 11, 571 21, 971 186, 425	31 1,825 729 583 117 172 13 15 192 2,168	1,449 384 421 3,413 163 91 21 1,108	1,329 452 5,246 1,517 10 576 16	73, 967 20, 495 6, 708 6, 711 38, 698 89, 755 7, 034 4, 23, 866 8, 95 76, 653 8, 471 1, 40 1, 885 219, 156	20, 142 5, 339 4, 228 76, 775 6, 771 83, 161 911 28, 768 4, 827 13, 692 9, 940 17, 726 191, 063	5,805 109,393 74,088 687 30,242 11,641 21,971 217,476
Other countries	21,790	23,772		11,070	5, 882		71,574	50, 243	
Total	594,998	428,306		23,520	18,951		700, 836	513,586	

OATS.

TABLE 26.—Oats: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917.

_		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
NORTH AMERICA.	A cres. 40,996,000	A cres. 41,527,000	. Acres. 43,572,000	Bushels, 1,549,030,000	Bushels. 1,251,837,000	Bushels, 1,587,286,000
Canada: New Brunswick. Quebec. Ontario. Manitoba. Saskatchewan. Alberta. Other	201,000 1,400,000 3,095,000 1,327,000 3,201,000 1,822,000 379,000	198,000 1,073,000 1,991,000 1,444,000 3,792,000 2,124,000 374,000		5, 560, 000 42, 182, 000 122, 810, 000 63, 965, 000 171, 765, 000 102, 692, 000 14, 710, 000	6, 089, 000 24, 411, 000 50, 771, 000 48, 439, 000 163, 278, 000 102, 199, 000 15, 074, 000	
Total Canada	11, 425, 000	10,996,000		523, 684, 000	410, 211, 000	
Mexico	(1)	(1)	(1)	17,000	17,000	
Total				2,072,731,000	1,662,065,000	
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentins. Chile. Urugusy	2, 869, 000 152, 000 82, 000	2,565,000 161,000 105,000	2, 525, 000 (1) 142, 000	49, 397, 000 7, 104, 000 933, 000	75, 280, 000 6, 350, 000 2, 283, 000	31,781,000 (1) 1,926,000
Total				57, 434, 000	83, 913, 000	
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary proper Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina	2 2,663,000 2,664,000 (1) (1)		833	² 57, 625, 000 8), 925, 000 5, 000, 000 4, 000, 000	333	3333
Total Austria-Hun- gary				147, 550, 000		
Belgium. Bulgaria. Bulgaria. Finland. France 5 Germany. Italy Netherlands. Norway. Roumania.	8 696,000 8 379,000 1,024,000 4 987,000 8,062,000 11,404,000 1,208,000 358,000 306,000 1,065,000	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	(1) 981,000 7,706,000 1,107,000 371,000 307,000	40,000,000 9,545,000 42,859,000 22,000,000 238,551,000 412,400,000 31,443,000 20,692,000 10,318,000 29,054,000	7, 372, 000 42, 286, 000 277, 179, 000 28, 742, 000 22, 240, 000 13, 502, 000 28, 935, 000	(1) (1) (1) 37, 685, 000 237, 426, 000 (1) 33, 889, 000 18, 594, 000 11, 806, 000 (1)
Russia: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	33, 945, 000 (1) 985, 000	34,706,000 (1) (1)	(1)	757, 308, 000 (1) 25, 267, 000	843, 249, 900	(!)
Total	34, 930, 000			782, 575, 000		
SerbiaSpainSweden	1,403,000 1,970,000	1,398,000 1,954,000	1, 425, 000 1, 929, 000	4,000,000 36,949,000 91,311,000	(1) 32, 163, 000 93, 089, 000	
United Kingdom: England Wales Scotland Ireland	1, 888, 000 199, 000 983, 000 1, 089, 000	1, 862, 000 222, 000 991, 000 1, 072, 000	1,040,000	78, 409, 000 7, 305, 000 40, 313, 000 58, 065, 000	77, 676, 000 8, 237, 000 37, 362, 000 52, 774, 000	
Total United King- dom	4, 159, 000	4, 147, 000		184, 092, 000	176, 049, 000	
Total				2,103,339,000		

⁴ Data for 1910. • Excludes territory occupied by the enemy.



No official statistics.
 Galicia and Bukowina not included.
 Data for 1914.

OATS-Continued.

TABLE 26.—Oats: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917—Contd.

Country.		Area.			Preduction.	
country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
ASIA.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Bushels. 405,000	Bushels.	Bushels.
Russia: Central Asia (4 Gov- ernments of)	986,000	(1)	(1)	16, 422, 000	(¹)	(1)
Siberia (4 Govern- ments of)	5, 161, 000	(ı)	(1)	68, 381, 000	(1)	(1)
Transcaucasia (1 Government of)	2,000	(1)	(1)	. 36,900	(1)	(1)
Total	6, 149, 000			84, 839, 000		
Total				85, 244, 000		
AVRICA. Algeria Tunis Union of South Africa	590, 000 148, 000 (¹)	536, 000 164, 000 (1)	682, 000 124; 000 250, 000	15, 082, 090 3, 445, 000 2 9, 661, 000	13, 140, 000 2, 967, 000 (¹)	18, 601, 000 3, 996, 000 6, 928, 000
Total				28, 188, 090		
AUSTRALASIA.						
Australia: Queensland New South Wales Victoria South Australia Western Australia Tasmania	3,000 43,000 435,000 141,000 96,000 57,000	(*) 58,000 354,000 127,000 104,000 78,000		44,000 512,000 1,608,000 368,000 465,000 1,342,000	2,000 1,844,000 9,329,000 2,134,000 1,538,000 2,189,000	
Total Australia New Zealand	775, 000 288, 000	722,000 213,000	724, 000 178, 000	4,341,000 11,436,000	16,539,000 7,653,000	20, 751, 000 5, 470, 000
Total Australasia	1,063,000	935,000	902,000	15, 777, 000	24, 192, 000	26, 221, 000
Grand total				4, 362, 713, 000		

No official statistics.

TABLE 27.—Oats: Total production in countries named in Table 26, 1895-1915.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1895 1894 1897 1898 1899	Bushels. 3,008,154,000 2,847,115,000 2,633,971,000 2,903,974,000 3,256,256,000 3,166,002,000	1901 1902 1903 1904 1905		1907 1908 1909 1910 1911	4, 312, 882, 000	1913 1914 1915	Bushels. 4, 697, 437, 000 4, 034, 857, 000 4, 362, 713, 000

TABLE 28.—Oats: Average yield per acre in undermentioned countries, 1890-1916.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean).1	Ger- many. ¹	Austria.1	Hungary proper.	France.3	United King- dom.
A verage: 1890–1899 1900–1909 1910–1914	Bushels. 26. 1 29. 3 30. 5	Bushels. 17. 8 20. 0 21. 8	Bushels. 40. 0 50. 7 54. 7	Bushels. 25. 3 29. 8 37. 5	Bushels. 30. 7 31. 9	Bushels. 29. 8 31. 6 31. 0	Bushels. 43.6 41.3 42.9
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1911 1912 1914 1914	31. 2 23. 7 25. 0 28. 6 31. 6 24. 4 37. 4 29. 2 29. 7 30. 1	15. 1 19. 7 20. 1 25. 7 22. 5 18. 6 23. 6 26. 3 17. 9 4 22. 4	55. 7 58. 3 50. 2 59. 0 51. 3 49. 6 54. 1 61. 1 57. 4 36. 2	34. 1 35. 7 32. 0 37. 4 31. 5 33. 7 36. 2 39. 3 46. 6 21. 6	34. 2 30. 0 26. 8 33. 8 26. 8 31. 1 34. 6 33. 2 30. 4	27. 0 31. 8 29. 6 34. 1 29. 8 30. 8 31. 9 31. 6 31. 0 25. 6 30. 2	43. 8 45. 1 43. 5 45. 9 44. 3 41. 5 41. 7 43. 0 41. 3 42. 5
Average (1907–1916)	29. 8					30. 6	43. 6

Bushels of 32 pounds.
 Winchester bushels.

² Census of 1911.

² Less than 500 acres.

Galicia and Bukowina not included.
 Poland not included.

Poland not included.

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OATS-Continued.

TABLE 29.—Oats: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

Cottina	res wherev	01 110 11	Consus unca	ate ave	MADIO.	,					
		Aver-		Aver- age farm	Farm	Chic bu	ago cas ishel, c	sh pric	e per	Domestic exports, including	Imports during fiscal
Year.	Acreage.	yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	price per bushel	value, Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		wing ay.	oatmeal, fiscal year be-	year begin- ning
				Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	ginning July 1.3	July 1.1
1849 1859	Acres.	Bush.	Bushels. 148, 584, 000 172, 643, 000	Cts.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels.	Bushels.
1866 1867 1868	8, 864, 000 10, 082, 000 9, 666, 000	27. 6 26. 4	268, 141, 000 278, 698, 000 254, 961, 000	44.5 41.7	94, 058, 000 123, 903, 000 106, 356, 000	86 52 43	43 571 493	59 564	78 624	825, 896 122, 554 481, 871	780,798
1869 1869	9, 461, 000	30. 5	288, 334, 000 282, 107, 000	38.0		40	442	461	62 53		
1870 1871 1872 1873	8,792,000 8,366,000 9,001,000 9,752,000 10,897,000	28.1 30.6 30.2 27.7 22.1	247, 277, 000 255, 743, 000 271, 747, 000 270, 340, 000 240, 369, 000	39. 0 36. 2 29. 9 34. 6 47. 1	81,304,000 93,474,000	37 30 23 34 51	41 33 25 40 54	471 841 30 44 571	51 424 34 484 644	147, 572 262, 975 714, 672 812, 873 504, 770	191,802
1875 1876 1877	11,915,000 13,359,000 12,826,000	29.7 24.0 31.7	354,318,000 320,884,000 406,394,000	32. 0 32. 4 28. 4	113, 441, 000 103, 845, 000	294 314	301 341 27	284 371 23	311 451 27	1, 466, 228 2, 854, 198	121,547 41 597
1878 1879 1879	13, 176, 000 12, 684, 000 16, 145, 000	31. 4 28. 7 25. 5	413, 579, 000 363, 761, 000 407, 869, 000	24. 6 33. 1	101, 752, 090	24 19 82	201 361	243 293	301 341	3, 715, 479 5, 452, 136 766, 366	13,396 489,576
1880 1881 1882 1883 1884	16, 188, 000 16, 832, 000 18, 495, 000 20, 325, 000 21, 301, 000	20.4	417, 885, 000 416, 481, 000 488, 251, 000 571, 302, 000 583, 628, 000	36. 0 46. 4 37. 5 32. 7	193, 199, 000 182, 978, 000 187, 040, 000	29 43 34 29 22	334 464 414 864 254	36 48 38 30 34	394 564 422 341 37	402, 904 625, 690 461, 496 8, 274, 622 6, 203, 104	1, 859, 983 815, 017 121, 069
1885 1886 1887 1888	22, 784, 000 23, 658, 000 25, 921, 000 26, 998, 000 27, 462, 000	27. 6 26. 4 25. 4	629, 409, 000 624, 134, 000 659, 618, 000 701, 735, 000	28. 5 29. 8 30. 4 27. 8	179, 632, 000 186, 138, 000 200, 700, 000 195, 424, 000	27 25 28 28	29 271 301 261	26 25 32 21	296 271 88 231	7,311,306 1,374,635 573,080 1,191,471	149, 480 139, 575 123, 817 131, 501
1889 1889	27, 462, 000 28, 521, 000 26, 431, 000	27. 4 28. 6 19. 8	751, 515, 000 809, 251, 000 523, 621, 000	42.4		20 397	21 437	24 1 45 1	30 54	15, 107, 238 1, 382, 836	41.848
1891 1892 1893 1894	25, 582, 000 27, 064, 000 27, 273, 000 27, 024, 000	28. 9 24. 4 23. 4 24. 5	738, 394, 000 661, 035, 000 638, 855, 000 662, 037, 000	31. 5 31. 7 29. 4 32. 4	209, 254, 000 187, 576, 000	397 31 25 27 28	33 31 29 29	28 28 32 27	33 } 32 } 36 30 }	10, 586, 644 2, 700, 793 6, 290, 229	47, 782 49, 433 31, 759
1895 1896 1897 1898	27, 878, 000 27, 566, 000 25, 730, 000 25, 777, 000 26, 341, 000	29. 6 25. 7 27. 2 28. 4 30. 2 51. 9	824, 444, 000 707, 346, 000 698, 768, 000 730, 907, 000 796, 178, 000	19. 9 18. 7	163, 655, 000 132, 485, 000 147, 975, 000 186, 405, 000	164 164 21	171 181 231 271 28	18 16 <u>7</u> 26 24 21 <u>1</u>	82 273	15, 156, 618 37, 725, 083 73, 880, 307 83, 534, 362 45, 048, 857	131,204 25,093
1899 1900 1901 1902 1903	29, 540,000 27, 365,000 28, 541,000 28, 653,000 27, 638,000 27, 843,000	29. 6 25. 8	943, 589, 000 809, 126, 000 736, 809, 000 987, 843, 000 784, 094, 000 894, 596, 000	39.9 30.7	293, 659, 000 303, 585, 000 267, 662, 000	212 42 291 341 281	224 481 32 38 38	277 41 33 39 28	31 491 381 441 32	42, 268, 931 13, 277, 612 8, 381, 805 1, 960, 740 8, 394, 692	38, 978 150, 065 183, 983
1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	28, 047, 000 30, 959, 000 31, 837, 000 32, 344, 000 33, 204, 000	31. 2 23. 7 25. 0 30. 3	953, 216, 000 964, 905, 000 754, 443, 000 807, 156, 000 1, 007, 353, 000	47.2	277, 048, 000 306, 293, 000 334, 568, 000 381, 171, 000	291 33 461 481	351 502 502	82 44 52 56	343 483 563 623	48, 434, 541 6, 386, 334 2, 518, 855 2, 333, 817	40,025 91,289 \$83,418 6,691,700
1909 1910 4 1911	35, 159, 000 37, 548, 000 37, 763, 000	31.6 24.4	1,007,143,000 1,186,341,000 922,298,000		408, 388, 000 414, 663, 000	40 81 461	45 821 47	36 <u>1</u> 31 <u>7</u> 50	43½ 86 58	3, 845, 850 2, 677, 749	107, 318
1912 1913 1914	37, 917, 000 38, 399, 000 38, 442, 000	37. 4 29. 2 29. 7	1, 418, 337, 000 1, 121, 768, 000 1, 141, 060, 000	31. 9 39. 2 43. 8	452, 469, 000 439, 596, 000	31 37 467	31 40 49	35 37 50	43 424 56	1 60, 455, 471	22, 273, 694 630, 722
1915 1916 1917	40, 996, 000 41, 527, 000 43, 572, 000	37. 8 30. 1	1,549,030,000 1,251,837,000 1,587,286,000	36. 1 52. 4	559, 506, 000	407 46 70	44 54 801	393 593	49 <u>1</u> 74		665,314
	<u> </u>			· ·			<u> </u>	<u> </u>	1		<u> </u>

¹ Quotations are for No. 2 to 1906.
2 Oatmeal not included 1866 to 1882, inclusive.
3 Oatmeal not included 1867 to 1882, inclusive, and 1909.
4 Figures adjusted to census basis.

' OATS-Continued.

TABLE 30 .- Oats: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916 and 1917.

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State.	Thousand	ds of acres.		ion (thou- bushels).	Dec. 1 p	due, basis orice (thou- dollars).
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
Maine. New Hampshire. Vermont Massachusetts. Rhode Island	170	160	4,930	5,760	4,190	3,859
	14	12	532	444	447	306
	88	80	3,168	2,560	2,693	1,664
	12	11	444	352	360	232
	2	2	62	54	46	37
Connecticut. New York New Jersey Pennsyl vania Delaware	20 1,275 73 1,175	17 1,206 69 1,130 4	660 44,625 2,482 41,125 128	510 31,356 2,070 35,030 120	33, 469 1, 787 30, 021 100	352 19, 441 1, 263 19, 967 74
Maryland Virginia West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina	47	46	1,457	1,357	1,093	828
	225	250	5,512	5,875	4,630	3,701
	143	140	3,861	3,220	3,050	2,061
	340	390	5,780	6,825	5,375	5,060
	400	500	6,000	9,000	6,000	7,200
Georgia Florida Ohio Indiana Illinois	650	860	10,400	16,770	12, 168	13, 248
	55	60	770	900	755	639
	1,775	1,717	78,100	48,076	49, 984	25, 480
	1,820	1,750	76,440	52,500	48, 157	26, 775
	4,700	4,470	244,400	172,095	158, 860	87, 768
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri.	1,550	1,423	56,575	42,690	36, 208	22,626
	2,250	2,200	99,000	81,400	65, 340	41,514
	3,250	3,325	120,250	88,112	75, 758	41,413
	5,250	5,100	246,750	188,700	155, 452	90,576
	1,480	1,290	59,209	32,250	36, 112	17,092
North Dakota. South Dakota. Nebraska Kansas. Kentucky.	2,575	2,500	38,625	53,750	23,948	28,650
	1,925	1,850	65,450	56,425	39,924	25,966
	3,038	2,250	115,444	79,875	70,421	37,541
	2,284	1,550	70,804	36,425	45,315	20,034
	310	300	8,060	6,300	6,126	3,780
Tennessee Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Texas	300	260	7,350	5,460	6,100	3,385
	540	600	9,720	10,500	9,914	7,875
	300	350	5,700	6,300	5,358	4,662
	84	110	1,873	2,090	1,761	1,421
	1,425	1,500	37,050	42,750	30,381	26,078
Oklahoma. Arkansas. Montana Wyoming. Colorado	1,150	1,160	26, 450	14,500	19,838	8, 285
	340	350	9, 520	7,350	7,140	4, 998
	680	660	13, 600	25,080	11,016	11, 788
	263	250	9, 468	8,750	7,574	5, 250
	293	290	11, 154	9,570	8,462	5, 742
New Mexico.	45	64	1,350	1,856	1,134	1,244
Arizona	10	9	400	338	384	270
Utah.	100	103	4,400	4,480	3,740	2,733
Nevada.	14	14	560	602	538	452
Idaho	275	310	10, 450 .	13,330	8,046	7, 198
Washington	292	275	11, 242	14,300	9,106	7, 293
Oregon	365	360	9, 125	17,280	6,844	8, 467
California	196	200	6, 860	6,500	5,831	4, 680
United States	43,572	41,527	1, 587, 286	1,251,837	1,061,427	655, 928

OATS-Continued. '

TABLE 31.—Oats: Production and distribution in the United States, 1897-1917.
[000 omitted.]

Year.	Old stock on farms Aug. 1.	Стор.	Total supplies.	Stock on farms Mar. 1 following.	Shipped out of county where grown,
1897	Bushels. 71, 139 44, 554 50, 537 54, 214 47, 713 30, 570 73, 352 42, 194 55, 836 67, 688	Bushels. 698, 768 730, 907 796, 178 809, 128 736, 809 987, 843 784, 004 894, 506 963, 216	Bushels. 769, 907 775, 461 846, 715 863, 340 784, 522 1, 018, 413 857, 446 936, 790 1, 009, 052 1, 032, 563	Buskels. 271, 729 283, 209 290, 937 292, 803 226, 393 364, 926 273, 798 347, 166 379, 805	Bushels. 204, 147 198, 527 223, 014 242, 850 143, 308 258, 438 223, 959 261, 969 277, 133 266, 182
1907	68, 258 37, 797 26, 323 61, 420 67, 798 34, 872 103, 900 62, 467 55, 607 113, 728 47, 834	754, 443 807, 156 1,007, 143 1,186, 341 922, 298 1,418, 337 1,121, 768 1,141, 060 1,251, 337 1,587, 296	822, 701 844, 953 1, 033, 466 1, 247, 761 990, 091 1, 453, 209 1, 225, 668 1, 203, 527 1, 604, 637 1, 365, 565 1, 635, 120	267, 476 278, 847 305, 438 442, 665 289, 968 604, 216 419, 476 379, 369 598, 148 394, 211	210, 923 244, 444 329, 255 363, 103 265, 956 438, 066 297, 326 335, 536 465, 823 355, 002

TABLE 32.—Oats: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

State.		Yield per acre (bushels).												Farm price per bushel (cents).					
	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916.	1917
Me	36, 4 37, 8 34, 6	30. 6 33. 3 33. 0	31. 5 32. 2 31. 0	42. 8 41. 5 35. 5	33. 8 35. 0 35. 0	39. (43. (34. (35. 0 39. 0 35. 0	38. 0 42. 5 37. 0	38. 0 43. 0 36. 0	37. (32. (32. (0 29. 0 0 38. 0 0 36. 0 0 37. 0 0 31. 0	58 58	55 56 52 54 50	57 58 55 56 56 58	45 54 53 51 50	67 69 65 66 68	84 85 81	21. 03 21. 28 21. 58 21. 58 19. 02 15. 34	31. 95 30. 60 29. 97
Conn N. Y N. J Pa Del.	32. 0 30. 4 31. 5	30. 1 30. 7 27. 3	28. 2 25. 5 26. 0	34. 5 37. 1 35. 2	29. 5 28. 5 28. 3	30. 8 27. 6 33.	8 33, 5 5 29, 6 1 31, 6	5 31. 5 0 29. 0 0 30. 0	40. 5 32. 5 38. 0	26. (30. (31. (0 33. 0 0 35. 0 0 34. 0 0 35. 0 0 35. 0	52 52 51	55 47 47 46 51	55 51 54 51 50	55 45 48 44 51	69 62 61 57 62	75 70 73	16, 99 15, 82 15, 07 15, 50 15, 69	26, 25 23, 80 25, 50
Md Va W. Va N. C S. C.	21. 2 23. 9 18. 1	19. 1 19. 0 16. 5	19. 0 22. 0 16. 5	22. 0 25. 2 18. 2	20. 0 22. 0 16. 5	22. 2 28. 0 18. 0	2 21. E 0 24. (5 19. 5	5 15. 5 0 20. 0 5 17. 5	25. 0 29. 0 23. 0	23. 23. 17.	5 31. 0 24. 5 0 27. 0 5 17. 0 0 15. 0	58 56 67	48 52 51 61 71	52 58 55 65 71	49 55 51 62 67	61 63 64 74 80	84 79 93	15. 13 12. 05 13. 18 12. 40 14. 44	20. 58 21. 33 15. 81
GaFla. OhioInd	16.3 34.6 31.8	16. 5 2. 4 21. 2	17. 0 132. 5 230. 5	16. 2 37. 2 35. 4	13. 5 32. 1 28. 7	17. 3 44. (2 18. 0 30. 2 1 21. 4	18. 0 2 30. 5 2 28. 5	20. 0 41. 0 40. 0	15. (28. (30. (5 16. 0 0 14. 0 0 44. 0 0 42. 0 5 52. 0	74 44 42	68 70 40 38 38	70 70 45 43 44	66 70 36 34 35	79 71 53 51 51	98 64 63	14. 15 12. 38 13. 98 12. 26 14. 06	13. 72 28. 16 26. 46
Mich Wis- Minn Iowa Mo	35. 4 32. 0 35. 0	31. 1 22. 0 24. 3	35. 0 33. 0 27. 0	29. 8 28. 7 37. 8	29.8 22.8 25.5	37.3 41.7 44.2	36. 5 37. 8 34. 5	27. 0 28. 0 33. 0	46. 5 43. 0 40. 0	37. 0 26. 3 37. 0	0 36. 5 0 44. 0 5 37. 0 0 47. 0 0 40. 0	43 39 39	39 37 32 34 45	45 43 40 41 44	35 36 32 32 32 38	53 51 47 48 53	66 63 63	13. 78 14. 53 12. 07 13. 55 10. 74	29.04 23.31 29.61

OATS-Continued.

Table 32.—Oats: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States—Continued.

L.F.

12 21 21

5.9 (1) (2) (4)

W.

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State.			,	rield	per	acr	e (bu	Farm price per bushel (cents).							Value per acre (dollars).				
	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916.	1917
N. Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans Ky	27.7 26.4	23. 0 22. 0 22. 0	30. 0 25. 0 28. 2	23. 0 28. 0 33. 3	7. 4 13. 9 15. 0	33. 24. 32.	8 26. 5 4 26. 5 0 19. 5	27. 5 32. 0 33. 5	32. 0 26. 5	30. 35. 23.	5 15. 0 5 34. 0 5 38. 0 5 31. 0 0 26. 0	38 39 44	30 34 38 45 52	37 38 40 42 53	27 28 31 37 48	44 46 47 55 60	61 61 64	10. 7 11. 3 11. 3	9. 30 4 20. 74 5 23. 18 5 19. 84 7 19. 76
Tenn Ala. Miss La. Tex	18. 9 19. 0 21. 5	18. 0 17. 5 20. 0	16. 5 16. 0 20. 0	18. 5 19. 2 21. 5	19. 2 18. 4 21. 0	20. 17. 20.	0 20. 8 4 20. 6 8 22. 0	22. 0 23. 0 23. 0	19. 0 21. 5 25. 0	17. 18. 19.	0 24. 5 5 18. 0 0 19. 0 0 22. 3 5 26. 0	70 67 63	53 69 63 57 51	53 69 65 63 48	50 63 60 55 42	62 75 74 68 61	102 94 94	13. 3 12. 8 12. 8	5 20. 34 5 18. 36 4 17. 86 5 20. 96 7 21. 32
Ark Mont	23.8 41.7 36.6	21. 4 41. 6 36, 4	22.8 51.3 35.0	27. 5 38. 0 32. 0	20. 0 49. 8 34. 5	19. 8 48. 6 41.	9 26. 5 0 43. 5 8 38. 6	35. 0 35. 0	27. 0 52. 0 42. 0	21. 38. 35.	5 23. 0 0 28. 0 0 20. 0 0 36. 0 0 38. 0	56 44 51	45 53 32 40 44	41 53 39 48 45	35 52 32 43 41	57 68 47 60 60	75 81 80	13.0 15.7 17.3	17. 25 1 21. 00 7 16. 20 1 28. 80 9 28. 80
N. Mex. Ariz Utah Nev	39.9 46.0	36. 0 49. 5	37.0	40. 1	42. 0	46.	7 43. (4 46. (42. 0 50. 0	37.0	37. 43.	5 44. 0	73	60 50 40 65	45 70 43 55	50 64 45 55	67 80 61 75	96 85	27. 1 22. 0	3 25. 20 7 38. 40 7 37. 40 7 38. 40
Idaho	47.1 37.3	44.5	49.0	42.8	51. 7	48.	2 47. 4 2 42. 3	47. 0 35. 0	50.0	52. 48.	0 38. 5 0 25. 0	48		38 42 45 53	34 37 37 50	54 51 49 72	81 75	20.6 17.4	8 29, 26 1 31, 18 6 18, 75 7 29, 75
U.S	31. 2	25. 0	30. 3	31. 6	24.4	37.	4 29. 2	29.7	37.8	30.	1 36. 4	43. 7	39. 2	43. 8	36, 1	52. 4	66. 9	13. 1	24. 36

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

Table 33.—Oats: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.		ited tes.	Atla	rth intic tes.	South Atlantic States.		State	entral s east ss. R.	States	entral s west ss. R.	Cen	ith tral tes.	Far West- ern States.	
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
January February March April May June	Cts. 51. 4 55. 2 56. 9 61. 5 71. 0 69. 9	Cts. 39. 1 44. 6 42. 7 42. 0 42. 6 42. 1	Cts. 61. 0 63. 9 68. 9 72. 7 83. 0 85. 5	Cts. 45. 9 50. 6 50. 7 51. 5 52. 6 53. 9	Cts. 74. 2 75. 0 79. 9 83. 4 91. 0 98. 0	Cts. 63. 4 64. 3 64. 6 65. 8 65. 6 66. 0	Cts. 49. 8 53. 4 55. 3 59. 9 69. 1 65. 7	Cts. 38. 4 45. 5 41. 7 40. 9 41. 9 40. 8	Cts. 46. 2 50. 8 51. 7 56. 8 65. 3 62. 6	Cts. 35. 4 41. 5 38. 2 37. 6 38. 2 37. 3	Cts. 65. 1 68. 2 70. 3 72. 0 82. 6 86. 9	Cts. 45. 4 47. 5 51. 0 50. 1 49. 4 50. 3	Cts. 54. 4 57. 3 58. 8 64. 5 79. 4 83. 2	Cts. 39.3 40.8 46.1 43.7 44.0 44.8
July	68. 9 73. 7 61. 7 62. 3 61. 7 66. 9	40. 4 40. 1 43. 1 44. 5 49. 0 52. 4	81. 3 88. 6 82. 7 72. 0 71. 5 75. 0		94. 0 102. 4 105. 9 109. 2 107. 2 97. 8	63. 9 64. 2 66. 2 68. 9 72. 6 74. 4	65. 8 70. 9 54. 9 57. 0 57. 0 64. 7	38. 4 38. 6 41. 5 42. 9 48. 1 51. 5	62. 7 68. 1 51. 2 54. 4 54. 2 62. 4	36. 1 35. 8 39. 0 40. 6 44. 6 47. 9	79. 3 84. 9 85. 5 80. 5 79. 5 81. 9	47. 2 44. 6 51. 6 53. 7 57. 7 63. 5	82. 4 79. 0 84. 9 79. 3 75. 7 79. 8	45. 9 46. 1 45. 2 44. 6 49. 4 54. 0
Average	62. 6	43. 9	74. 9	52. 9	94.5	66. 7	58. 6	42.8	56. 0	40.0	80. 9	50.3	74. 2	46, 2

OATS-Continued.

TABLE 34.—Oats: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1897-1917.

Year.	June.	July.	August.	When har- vested.	Year.	June.	July.	August.	When har- vested.	Year.	June.	July.	August.	When har- vested.
1897 1898 1899 1900 1901 1902	P. ct. 89. 0 98. 0 88. 7 91. 7 85. 3 90. 6 85. 5	P. ct. 87. 5 92. 8 90. 0 85. 5 83. 7 92. 1 84. 3	P. ct. 86. 0 84. 2 90. 8 85. 0 73. 6 89. 4 79. 5	P. ct. 84. 6 79. 0 87. 2 82. 9 72. 1 87. 2 75. 7	1904 1905 1908 1907 1908 1909	P. ct. 89. 2 92. 9 85. 9 81. 6 92. 9 88. 7 91. 0	P. ct. 89. 8 92. 1 84. 0 81. 0 85. 7 88. 3 82. 2	P. ct. 86. 6 90. 8 82. 8 75. 6 76. 8 85. 5 81. 5	P. ct. 85. 6 90. 3 81. 9 65. 5 69. 7 83. 8 83. 3	1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	P. ct. 85. 7 91. 1 87. 0 89. 5 92. 2 86. 9 88. 8	P. ct. 68. 8 89. 2 76. 8 84. 7 98. 9 86. 3 89. 4	P. ct. 65. 7 90. 3 73. 8 79. 4 91. 6 81. 5 87. 2	P. ct. 64. 5 92. 3 74. 0 75. 8 91. 1 78. 0 90. 4

TABLE 35.—Oats: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1917.

•	New	York.	Balti	more.		cin- ti.	Chi	cago.		wau- 86.	Du	luth.	Det	troit.		Fran- co.
Date.		o. 2 ite.¹		o. 3 ite.		o. 2 xed.	Con	tract.		n. 3 lite.	No wh	n. 3 Lite.	Stan	dard.		te (per lbs).
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	Hìgh.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec.	Cts. 531 381	Cts. 64 62]	Cts. 523 872	Cts. 65 66)	Cts. 50 82	Cts. 61 55	Cts. 467 301	Cts. 581 57	Cts. 47 801	Cts. 59 1 57	Cts. 441 28	Cts. 56½ 51	Cts. 504 334	Cts. 634 61	Dolls 1. 70 1. 47}	2. 12
1913. Jan.–June July–Dec.	36} 44	48 50	38 <u>1</u> 45	47 47 <u>4</u>	33½ 39	433 47	31 3	431 43	31 37	42 <u>}</u> 44	271 331	41 42	341 41		1. 431 1. 37	1. 67 1. 57
1914. JanJune July-Dec.	43) 43)	484 584	42 <u>4</u> 41 <u>4</u>	469 54 g	89 <u>1</u> 85	43 52}	364 33	42) 51	364 341	43 52	334 334	40 50 <u>1</u>	301 371	45 58	1. 22) 1. 20	1. 46 1. 60
1915. JanJune July-Dec.	53 8 55	66) 70)	50 38	64 66	46 33	61 ½ 58	46 1 35 ₂	60 <u>1</u>	47 <u>1</u> 33 1	61 <u>1</u> 63	441 31	587 58	50 361		1.40 1.30	1. 85 1. 50
1916. Jan Feb Mar Apr	484 484 444 494 441	57½ 56½ 56 51 52	48 47 451 47 43	551 55 47 491 504	44 42 42 43 38	55 1 53 46 46 46	431 411 42 441 391	51 50 47 47 49 1	434 401 41 431 881	55 52 46 46	39 41	49 47 42 42 43	46 44 44 46 46	48 484	1. 321 1. 424 1. 40 1. 40 1. 40	1. 55 1. 55 1. 45 1. 42 1. 57
May June JanJune	442	46 57}	43	441 551	38	40) 551		41 2	38	463 413 55	361	38 491	41	43	1. 50	1. 55
July Aug Sept Oct Nov	441 451 45 511 581 551	47½ 54 55 59½ 64 61½	432 45 501 51 571 571	46 51 52 58 61 60	39 41 461 471 532 84	424 471 481 55 581 91	388 41 444 454 514 467	42 47 471 531 57	381 402 44 46 511 482	431 49 481 541 581 55	364 384 424 43	40 471 451 51 571 52	43	46 49 51½ 57 60¼	1. 50 1. 57 1. 62 1. 62 1. 95 2. 00	1.60 1.79 1.79 2.00 2.07 2.07
July-Dec.	443	64	437	61}	39	91	38	57	381	581	364	57	42}	60}	1. 50	2. (*7
1917. Jan Feb Mar Apr May June	61 65 73 75 67 68	69½ 77 78 79½ 79½ 76	61 65 724 734 664 652	70 73 j 76 79 80 75 j	53½ 57 62 68½ 65 61½	60 62½ 70 74⅓ 73¼ 69	53 51 55 63 59 62	581 561 623 711 74 69	532 512 572 67 61 622	583 604 67 77 76 711	501 491 538 61 571 581	57 56 62 72 76 69	58 57 64½ 72 66 65	64½ 70 79 784	2.00 1.95 1.96 2.21 2.60 2.50	2 02 2 02 2 22 2 95 2 90 2 65
JanJune	61	79}	61	80	534	741	517	74	514	77	493	76}	57	79	1. 95	2. 95
July Aug Sept Oct Nov Dec	76 67 65 643 65 79	93\\\ 90 70 68 80 92\\\	76½ 62 64 64½ 66 77	92 100 661 671 77 87	73 561 56 64 601 74	861 853 62 66 741 822	68½ 51 56½ 59¾ 58½ 70}	85 80 61 61 724 80	71 52 573 584 59 724	894 82 63 604 75 83	654 51 554 594 571 671	89 79 61 62 70 81	73 56 58 55 62 76	64 591 77	2. 25 2. 45 2. 85 2. 50 2. 70 2. 70	2.50 2.95 3.00 3.00 2.75 2.75
July-Dec.	613	\$37	62	100	56	86}	51	85	52	891	51}	89	551	891	2. 25	3.00

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OATS-Continued.

TABLE 36.—Oats: International trade, calendar years 1911-1916.

[See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	Average 1915 1911–1913 (prelim.)		1916 (prelim.)	Country.	A verage 1911-1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)
From—	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	FROM-	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
Algeria	1,296	4,011	Duenete.	Netherlands	33,814	34	17
Argentina	52,754	40,840	55, 421	Roumania	10,012	l	
Bulgaria	278			Russia	65, 279	364	27
Canada	16, 583	18, 496	72,058	Sweden	2,342		'
China	412	324	70	United Kingdom	1,411	717	1,271
Chile	2,499	7,313		United States	12,592	104,549	105,839
Denmark	151	2		Other countries	3,727	3,087	
Finland	433	237	9	it i		! 	·
Germany	30,844			Total	234, 427	179,974	

IMPORTS.

INTO-				INTO-			
Austria-Hungary Belgium Denmark Cuba Finland France Germany Hilay Netherlands Norway	3,426 8,845 4,126 1,361 1,187 30,746 41,320 9,040 41,901 698	217 1,004 157 56,610 27,647 4,332 1,096	18 72,324 38,308 4,902 790	Philippine Islands . Russia . Sweden . Switzerland . United Kingdom . United States . Other countries . Total .	486 1,643 6,055 12,484 64,755 5,557 2,417	441 599 2,072 6,913 59,165 364 8,048	7, 320 48, 986 585

BARLEY.

TABLE 37.—Barley: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
NORTH AMERICA.	Acres. 7, 148, 000	Acres. 7,757,000	Acres. 8,835,000	Bushels. 228, 851, 000	Bushels. 182, 309, 000	Bushels. 208, 975, 000
Canada: New Brunswick. Quebec. Ontario. Manitoba. Saskatchewan Alberta. Other	2,000 85,000 449,000 570,000 285,000 306,000 11,000	2,000 73,000 326,000 688,000 367,000 337,000 10,000		48,000 2,255,000 15,369,000 20,644,000 10,497,000 11,544,000	45,000 1,456,000 7,498,000 13,729,000 9,916,000 9,774,000 352,000	
Total Canada	1,708,000	1,803,000		60,699,000	42,770,000	
Mexico	(1)	(1)		10,000,000	9,859,000	
Total				299, 550, 000	234, 938, 000	
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Chile. Uruguay	397,000 147,000 5,000	431,000 121,000 10,000	388,000 (1) 13,000	5,144,000 3,827,000 40,000	5,430,000 4,358,000 115,000	2,165,000 110,000
Total				9,011,000	9,903,000	

TABLE 37.—Burley: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917—Continued.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary proper Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina	Acres. 1 1,578,000 2,830,000 (1) (1)	Acres. (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	Acres. (2) (2) (2) (2)	Bushels. 1 29, 733,000 56, 186,000 1, 938,000 3,000,000	Bushels. (2) (2) (2) (1)	Bushels. (2) (2) (2) (2)
Total Austria- Hungary				90, 857, 000		
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark Finland France Germany Italy Netherlands Norway Roumania	* 84,000 * 554,000 644,000 4 273,000 1,575,000 4,002,000 608,000 63;000 97,000 1,371,000	(1) (2) 633,000 (1) 1,538,000 (1) 596,000 60,000 98,000 1,454,000	(4) (3) 594,000 (1) 1,789,000 (1) 469,000 52,000 97,000	4,000,000 14,697,000 25,890,000 5,000,000 31,787,000 114,077,000 11,051,000 2,682,000 28,688,000	(2) 14,739,000 22,317,000 (2) 38,268,000 (1) 11,041,000 2,496,000 3,415,000 30,038,000	(2) 17,886,000 (2) 39,557,000 (1) 7,422,000 2,573,000 3,000,000
Russia: Russia proper 6 Poland Northern Caucasia	22,325,000 (1) 4,400,000	22,031,000 (2) (3)	(2) (2)	316, 904, 000 (2) 75, 328, 000	350, 223, 000 (2) (1)	
Total Russia (European)	26, 725, 000			392, 232, 000		
Serbia	3,786,000 431,000	3,886,000 421,000	4,086,000 438,000	2,250,000 82,763,000 14,254,000	86, 863, 000 14, 621, 000	76,747,000 12,263,000
United Kingdom: EnglandWalesScotlandIreland	1, 152, 000 80, 000 149, 000 142, 000	1,245,000 87,000 170,000 150,000	159,414	34, 898, 000 2, 467, 000 5, 183, 000 5, 828, 000	40, 023, 000 2, 731, 000 5, 340, 000 6, 474, 000	
Total United King- dom	1,523,000	1,652,000		48, 376, 000	54, 568, 000	
Total				871, 984, 000		
ASIA.						
British India Cyprus	7,821,000	7,924,000	7, 856, 000	142, 847, 000 2, 000, 000	147,653,000 (1)	155, 447, 000
Japan	3,213,000 5,000 1,185,000	3, 079, 000 (1) (1)	2, 738, 000	94,959,000 61,000 24,872,000	89, 486, 000 (1) (1)	76,505,000 - (1)
Total Japanese Empire	4,403,000			119, 892, 000		
Russia: Central Asia (4 Governments of) Siberia (4 Governments of) Transcaucasia (1 Government of)	350, 000 651, 000 2, 000	(¹) (¹) (¹)	(¹) (¹)	3, 278, 000 5, 753, 000 38, 000	(¹) (¹)	
Total	1,003,000			9, 069, 000		
Total				273, 808, 000		



No official statistics.
 Galicia and Bukowina not included.
 Data for 1914.

<sup>Data for 1910.
Excludes territory occupied by the enemy.
Data for 1914.</sup>

Table 37.—Barley: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917-Continued.

_		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
AFRICA. Algeria	Acres. 2,703,000 463,000 1,038,000	Acres. 3,009,000 439,000 1,233,000 64,000	Acres. 2,839,000 445,000 1,038,000 57,000	Bushels. 39, 866, 000 13, 746, 000 11, 482, 000 21, 359, 000	Bushels. 35, 969, 000 13, 161, 900 4, 914, 000	Bushels. 31,461,000 13,598,000 8,267,000 1,000,000
Total				66, 458, 000		54, 326, 000
AUSTRALIA.						
Australasia: Queensland New South Wales Victoria. South Australia. Western Australia. Tasmania	7,000 5,000 62,000 66,000 7,000 6,000	1,000 6,000 61,000 85,000 10,000 5,000		106,000 47,000 601,000 447,000 24,000 106,000	8,000 115,000 1,735,000 1,698,000 131,000	
Total Australia New Zealand	154, 000 18, 000	170,000 80,000	180,000 30,000	1,329,000 597,000	3, 802, 000 820, 000	4, 189, 000 738, 000
Total Australasia	172,000	200,000	210,000	1,926,000	4,622,000	4,927,000
Grand total				1,522,732,000		

¹ No official statistics.

TABLE 38.—Barley: Total production of countries named in Table 37, 1895-1915.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899	Bushels. 915, 504, 000 932, 100, 000 864, 605, 000 1, 030, 581, 000 965, 720, 000 959, 622, 000	1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	Bushels. 1,072,195,000 1,229,132,000 1,235,786,000 1,175,784,000 1,180,053,000 1,296,579,000	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911	Bushels. 1, 271, 237, 000 1, 274, 897, 000 1, 458, 263, 600 1, 388, 734, 000 1, 373, 286, 000 1, 466, 977, 000	1913 1914 1915	Bushels. 1, 650, 265, 000 1, 463, 289, 000 1, 522, 732, 000

TABLE 39.—Barley: Average yield per acre in undermentioned countries, 1890-1916.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean).1	Ger- many.1	Austria.¹	Hungary proper. ¹	France.*	United King- dom. ²
Average: 1890-1899	25.5	Bushels. 13.3 14.3 15.7	Bushels. 29.4 35.3 38.0	Bushels. 21.1 26.3 29.1	Bushels. 23. 4 25. 0	Bushels. 22. 6 23. 6 24. 6	Bushels. 39.8 35.0 34.4
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915	23. 8 25. 1 22. 5 22. 5 21. 0 29. 7	13.0 14.2 14.2 17.9 16.3 14.4 16.2 18.5 12.9 4 14.7	35. 2 38. 2 34. 9 39. 5 34. 4 37. 0 40. 7 41. 3 36. 8 28. 4	28. 1 27. 3 25. 2 28. 4 24. 9 27. 5 29. 7 29. 7 33. 8	26. 8 23. 1 21. 3 25. 1 19. 7 26. 9 28. 9 27. 6 24. 1 19. 7	20. 8 24. 4 22. 6 25. 4 23. 5 25. 0 26. 1 24. 5 24. 0 19. 7 23. 8	36. 1 36. 8 34. 9 38. 9 34. 0 33. 1 35. 1 35. 1 31. 8 33. 0
Average (1907–1916)	25. 0					23.9	34.8

<sup>Bushels of 48 pounds.
Winchester bushels.</sup>

² Census of 1911.

Galicia and Bukowina not included.

TABLE 40.—Barley: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

		Av- erage yield	Produc-	Aver- age farm	Ferm	bus	go cas shel, le lancy.	0.0AL_10078	e per alting	Domestic exports,	Imports fiscal year
Year.	Acreage.	per acre.	tion.	price per bushel Dec. 1.	value Dec. 1.	. Dece	mber.		wing ay.	fiscal year beginning July 1.	begin- ning July 1.
					,	Low.	High.	Low.	High.		
849	Acres.	Bush .	Bushels.	Centa.	Dollars.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Bushels.	Bushels.
			5,167,000 15,826,000		•••••						•••••
866	493,000 1,131,000 937,000 1,026,000	22. 9	11, 284, 000	70.2 70.1	7,916,000	59	70 180	85 227	100 250	9, 810	3,247,25 8,783,96
868	937,000	22.7 24.4	25,727,000 22,896,000	109.0	18, 028, 000 24, 948, 000	150 140	170	149	175	59,077	5,069,88
869	937,000 1,026,000	27.9	28,652,000 29,761,000	70.8	20, 298, 000	74	85	50	62	255, 490	6,727,59
870	1, 109, 000	23.7		79. 1	0,792,000	6 8	80	72	95	840,093	4, 866, 70 5, 565, 59
871	1,114,000	24. 0 19. 2	26, 718, 000	75. 8 68. 6	0,792,000 20,264,000	55 <u>4</u> 60	64 70	55 71	71 85	86,891	5,565,50 4,244,75
.871 .872 .873 .874	1,114,000 1,397,000 1,387,000	23. 1	26,295,000 26,718,000 26,846,000 82,044,000	86.7	18,416,000 27,794,000	132	158	130	155	482,410 320,399	4.891.18
1874	1,581,000	20.6	82,552,000	80. U	27,998,000	120	1291	115	137	91,118	6, 255, 00
875	1,790,000 1,767,000 1,669,000 1,790,000	20. 6 21. 9	36,909,000 38,710,000	74. 1 63. 0	27,368,000 24,403,000	81 633	88 683	62 <u>1</u> 80	72 <u>1</u> 85	1.188.129	10, 285, 95 6, 702, 96
877	1,669,000	21.4	35.638.000	62.5	24,403,000 22,287,000	561	64	461	521	3,921,501	6, 764, 22
879	1,681,000	23.6 24.0	42,246,000 40,283,000 43,997,000	57. 9 58. 9	24,454,000 23,714,000	91 86	100 92	64 75	73 80	3,921,501 715,536 1,128,923	6, 702, 96 6, 764, 22 5, 720, 97 7, 135, 25
879	1,998,000	23.0			•••••				•••••		
880	1,843,000 1,968,000	24.5 20.9	45,165,000 41,161,000	66. 6 82. 3	30,091,000 33,863,000	100 101	120 107	95 100	105 100	205,246	9,528,6 12,182,7
882	2,272,000	21.5	48, 954, 000	62.9	30,768,000	79	82	80	80	433,005	10.050.6
883 884	2,379,000	21. 1 23. 5	50, 136, 000 61, 203, 000	58. 7 48. 7	29, 420, 000 29, 779, 000	62 53	67 58	65 65	74 65	629, 130	8, 596, 12 9, 986, 50
885	2 729 000	21.4	58, 360, 000	56.3	82,868,000	62	65	58	60	252, 183	10, 197, 11
1886	2,653,000	22.4	59, 428, 000 56, 812, 000 63, 884, 000 78, 333, 000	53.6	31,841,000	51 80	54 80	57 69	57 77	1,305,300	10, 355, 50 10, 831, 40
888	2,996,000	19.6 21.3	63,884,000	51. 9 59. 0	29,464,000 37,672,000				ļ	1,440,321	11,368,4
1889 1889	3,221,000	24.8	78,333,000 78,333,000	41.6	32,614,000	58	58	· · · · · ·		1,408,311	11,332,5
1890			67,168,000	62.7	42,141,000					973,062	5, 078, 7
891 892	I 8.353.(III)	25.9	86, 839, 000	52.4	45.470.000					2,800,075 3,035,267 5,219,405	3,146,3 1,970,1 791,0
893	3,400,000 3,220,000 3,171,000	23.6 21.7	80,097,000 69,869,000	47. 5 41. 1	28,729,000	65 52	67 54	65 55	65 60	5,219,405	791,00
893 894			61,400,000	44.2			551	51	52	1,003,704	2,110,0
1895 1896	3,300,000 2,951,000	26. 4 23. 6	87,073,000 69,695,000	33. 7 32. 3	29,312,000 22,491,000	33 22	40 37	·25 241	36 35	7,680,331 20,030,301	837,35 1,271,78
1897	2.719.000	24.5	66, 685, 000	37.7	25.142.000	254	42	36	53	11,237,077 2,267,403 23,661,662	124.0
1898 1899	2,583,000 2,878,000	21.6 25.5	55,792,000 73,382,000	41.3 40.3	23,004,000	40	50½ 45	36 36	42	23,661,662	110, 47 189, 7
899	2,583,000 2,878,000 4,470,000	26.8	119,656,000							[]	
900	2.894.000	20.4	58,926,000 109,933,000 134,954,000	40.9	24,075,000 49,705,000	37 56	61 63	37 64	57 72	6,293,207 8,714,268	171,00 57,40
1901 1902	4,661,000	25.6 29.0	134,954,000	45. 2 45. 9	61,899,000	36	70	48	56	1 8, 429, 141	56, 46 90, 70
903	4,993,000	26. 4 27. 2	131,861,000	45.6 42.0	60,166,000	42 38	613 52	38 40	59 50	10,881,627 10,661,655	90,70 81,02
1905			136, 551,000		54,993,000	37	53	42	554	17, 729, 360	18.04
1906	6,321,000	28.3	178,916,000	41.5	74, 236, 000	44 78	56 102	66 60	85°	17, 729, 360 8, 238, 842 4, 349, 078	38,31 199,74
1907 1908	6,448,000 6,646,000	23.8 25.1	166,756,000	66. 6 55. 4	92,442,000	57	641	66	75	6,580,393	2,64
1909	7,011,000	24.3 22.5	170, 284, 000 173, 344, 000	54.0			72	50	68	4.311.566	
1909 1910 ²			170,044,000	57. 8		1	90	75	115	9,399,346	
1911	7,627,000	21.0	160, 240, 000	86.9	139, 182, 000	102	130	68	132	1,585,242	
1912 1913	7,530,000	29.7 23.8	223,824,000	50. 5 53. 7	112,957,000 95,731,000	43 50	77 79	45 51	68	9,399,346 1,585,242 17,536,703 6,644,747	
1914	7 565 000	25.8	194, 953, 000	54.3	105,903,000	60	75	743	82	26, 754, 522 27, 473, 160 16, 381, 077	
1915	7,148,000	32.0	228, 851, 000	51.6	118, 172, 000	62 95	77 125	70 128	83 165	27, 473, 160	
1916 1917	7,757,000 8,835,000	23.5 23.7	208,975,000 208,975,000	88. 1 113. 7	160,646,000 237,539,000		163	120		, 001, 011	

TABLE 41.—Barley: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1917.
[000 omitted.]

State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Maine. New Hampshire Vermont. New York Pennsylvania	110	Bushcls. 147 31 493 3,080 364	Dollars. 191 54 690 4,004 510	Kansas Kentucky Tennessee Texas. Oklahoma	Acres. 750 5 6 9	Bushels. 7,500 140 120 180 162	Dollars. 8,625 161 173 247 240
Maryland	12 40 22	156 360 1,320 671 2,475	203 500 1,558 698 2, 99 5	Montana Wyoming Colorado New Mexico. Arizona	90 27 168 13 33	1,350 783 5,544 364 1,155	1,390 1,018 5,766 506 1,732
Michigan Wisconsin Minnosota Iowa Missouri	1,400 300	3,445 19,200 37,800 10,500	4,100 23,808 41,958 12,285	Utah	12 190	1,221 420 5,510 4,930 5,278 39,150	1,465 500 5,786 5,670 6,070 46,980
North Dakota South Pakota Nebraska	1,020	22,812 26,520 5,644	22,812 29,172 5,531	United States.	8, 835	208,975	237, 539

TABLE 42.—Barley: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			3	ield	per	acre	(bus	shels).			F	arm		e per nts).	busl	nel	Value per acre (dollars).	
State.	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916.	1917
MeVtVtVt	27.6 31.8 25.8	24.0 33.0 26.0	25.0 30.0 24.8	26.0 31.0 28.3	24.0 30.5 25.0	28.0 35.0 26.0	28.0 32.0 26.7	32.0 34.5 28.0	30. (35. (32. (28.0 27.5 23.3	28.0	91 85 82	80 80 80 69 71	81 82 75 71 70	75 79 75 75 75	90 100	175 140 130	22. 76 24. 21 26. 65 20. 70 19. 53	51 25 40.60 36.40
Md. Va. Ohio. nd Il	27. 2 28. 1 26. 5 30. 5	28. 0 27. 5 23. 0 28. 5	28. 5 25. 9 23. 5 28. 0	29.3 28.5 27.0 30.2	23.0 27.2 26.5 8.0	25.0 31.0 29.5 31.5	26.0 24.0 25.0 26.0	26. 0 25. 0 25. 0 29. 5	29. (31. (28. (34. ($\begin{vmatrix} 27.5 \\ 27.8 \\ 27.0 \\ 32.0 \end{vmatrix}$	30. 0 33. 0 30. 5 37. 5	80 69 68 72	64 70 58 50 57	66 80 59 67 61	70 75 54 65 57	73 85 80 75 103	139 118 104	21.17 20.58 16.94 17.08 20.37	41. 70 38, 9 31, 73
fichVisfinn	28.9 24.0 27.8 23.6	30.0 25.0 27.0 23.0	28. 0 23. 6 22. 0 25. 0	25. 9 21. 0 29. 5 27. 0	25, 5 19, 0 21, 9 20, 0	29.4 28.2 31.0 24.8	25.0 24.0 25.0 22.0	27. 3 23. 3 26. 0 24. 0	35. 5 30. 5 31. 0 25. 0	30.0 19.0 29.5 20.0	32. 0 27. 0 35. 0 25. 0	74 64 66 71	60 60 48 55 60	53 55	62 56 49 49 63	91 105 87 91 93	124 111 117	17. 85 19. 90 13. 35 17. 24 15. 90	39.68 29.99 40.98
Dak	21.7 22.2 17.2 26.7	26, 5 23, 5 16, 0 25, 0	19.5 22.0 18.0 24.0	18. 2 18. 5 18. 0 24. 0	5. 4 11. 0 6. 5 28. 7	26.0 22.0 23.5 26.0	17.5 16.0 8.1 26.6	23. 5 23. 5 24. 5 28. 5	32.0 31.0 31.0 30.0	22.7 28.0 16.0 26.0	26. 0 26. 5 10. 0 28. 0	61 55 59	40 46 49 55 78	50 47	44 46 42 42 77	80 83 75 77 90	110 98 115	10.74 12.81 12.43 10.14 21.74	28.6 26.2 11.5
ennexkla	23.5 19.7 31.0	24.0 23.0 35.0	19.4 23.0 38.0	30.0 30.0 28.0	18.0 10.0 34.5	29.3 20.0 36.5	9.0 31.0	25. 0 25. 0 30. 5	28.0 26.5 34.0	17.0 12.5 28.0	20.0 18.0 15.0	72 64	70 81 80 48 61	82 70 53 53 64	75 68 50 48 55	80 100 76	137 148 103	20, 43 18, 49 11, 24 17, 60 21, 86	27. 4 26. 6 15. 4
olo	32. 2 37. 2 40. 8 40. 1	42.0 38.0 45.0 30.0	40.0 40.0 40.0 38.0	25, 0 36, 0 36, 0 40, 0	33, 0 36, 5 43, 0 40, 0	35.0 40.0 45.0 41.0	24.0 39.0 38.5 41.0	34. 0 36. 0 45. 0 47. 0	33. 0 37. 0 42. 5 48. 0	28.0 35.0 36.0 41.0	28. 0 35. 0 37. 0 35. 0	88 66 83	56 72 73 55 90	55 75 60 50 65	48 70 56 52 70	108 76	139 150 120	20. 48 23. 75 28. 68 23. 94 35. 13	38.9 52.5 44.4
laho /ash regal	37.0	30.5 29.0	39.5 31.5	$\frac{29.0}{31.5}$	37.0 34.0	43.0 36.0	40.5 35.0	39.0	41.5	41.3	29.0 29.0	-66 68	48 52 55 68	52 61	52 56 62 62	82 84 80 95	115 115	22. 88 24. 41 22. 09 20. 19	33.3

TABLE 43.—Barley: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1896-1917.

Year.	June.	July.	Au- gust.	When har- vested.	Year.	June.	July.	Au- gust.	When har- vested.
1896	P. ct. 98. 0 87. 4 78. 8 91. 4 86. 2 91. 0 93. 6 91. 5 90. 5 93. 7	P. ct. 88. 1 88. 5 92. 0 76. 3 91. 3 93. 7 86. 8 88. 5 91. 5	P. ct. 82.9 87.5 79.3 93.6 71.6 86.9 90.2 83.4 88.1 89.5	P. ct. 83. 1 86. 4 79. 2 86. 7 70. 7 83. 8 89. 7 82. 1 87. 4 87. 8 89. 4	1907 1908 1908 1910 1911 1912 1913 1913 1914 1915 1916	P. d. 84.9 89.6 90.6 90.2 91.1 87.1 95.5 94.6 86.8 89.3	P. ct. 84.4 86.2 90.2 73.7 72.1 88.3 76.6 94.1 87.9 85.4	P. ct. 84.5 83.4 70.0 66.2 89.1 74.9 85.8 80.0 77.9	P. cf. 78.5 81.2 80.5 60.8 65.5 88.9 73.4 82.4 94.2 74.6 76.3

Table 44.—Barley: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.	United States.		Atla	North Atlantic States.		uth intic tes.	State	entral s east ss. R.	N. Central States west of Miss. R.		South Central States.		Far West- ern States.	
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
January February March April May June	Cts. 87. 1 92. 7 96. 9 102. 3 120. 1 119. 3	61.7 59.6 57.2 59.6	Cts. 102.7 109.8 106.2 114.2 147.8 159.0	Cts. 75.4 74.9 78.6 79.2 79.6 81.5	Cts. 65. 0 75. 0 90. 0 90. 0	76.0 72.0 74.0	Cts. 98. 5 102. 1 106. 8 112. 9 125. 5 138. 8		Cts. 78.8 87.8 91.0 99.7 118.0 107.0	53. 0 55. 9	Cts. 81.7 89.1 108.0 101.0 133.3 124.2	63. 2 63. 8	Cts. 93. 7 95. 3 100. 8 101. 5 119. 9 127. 4	Ct*. 59.6 61.7 67.8 60.6 62.9 62.2
August September October	106. 6 114. 5 110. 0 113. 9 111. 3 113. 7	59. 3 72. 9 76. 5	153. 8 148. 4 139. 7 134. 8 131. 5 132. 4	82. 0 93. 4 94. 0	98. 0 110. 0 100. 0 107. 0 100. 0 136. 2	85. 0 60. 0 80. 0 70. 0	125. 2 128. 4 121. 1 125. 0 123. 2 122. 8	89.9 90.7 98.6	99. 3 114. 8 100. 7 110. 2 106. 5 108. 7	55. 3 70. 8 72. 8 80. 4	124. 3 135. 1 134. 0 138. 6 154. 1 136. 4	57. 4 64. 8 99. 6 78. 1	107. 6 107. 2 117. 1 113. 6 112. 2 117. 0	61.3 63.0 69.4 77.0 81.7 89.1
Average	108. 1	71.6	130. 2	86.0	101. 1	73. 4	118.4	83.0	103.0	70.0	128.4	72.1	110.7	72.5

TABLE 45.—Barley: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1917.

	Cinci	nnati.	Othic	ago.	Milwa	ukee.	Minne	apolis.	San Fr	ancisco.
Date.	Spring	g malt.		nalting incy.	No	. 3.	All g	rades.	Feed (per 100 lbs.).	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cents. 110 55	Cents. 132 78	Cents. 60 40	Cents. 140 110	Cents. 95 64	Cents. 138 110	Cents. 50 34	Cents. 130 95	Cents. 1521 115	Cents. 195 1524
1913. JanJune July-Dec	54 <u>1</u> 57	70 80	42 48	71 85	60 60	73 82	39 42	63 73	130 1221	150 140
1914. JanJune July-Dec	60 70	70 80	49 50	79 82	53 51 ½	68 82	41 40	65 76	90 95	132 <u>1</u> 130
1915. JanJune July-Dec	72 70	102 102	66 51	91 85	70 <u>1</u> 54	93 81	58 42	86 78	100 100	1624 1324

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Statistics of Barley.

BARLEY-Continued.

Table 45.—Barley: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1917—Continued.

	Cinci	nnati.	Chic	ago.	Milws	ukee.	Minne	apolis.	San Fr	ancisco.
Date.	Spring	malt.		nalting ancy.	No	. 3.	All g	rades.		per 100 s.).
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1916.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
January	83	88	68	84	71	82	61	76}	127}	1321
February	89	98	64	83	68	791	59	75	180	135
March	83	98	64	78	701	77	50	72	130	135
April	89	98	64	83	68	791	59	75	130	135
May	91	102	70	83	743	80"	60	754	130	136}
June	93	102	70	86	78	78	60	78	1271	132
JanJune	83	102	64	86	68	82	59	761	1271	1361
July	93	102	68	80	70	80	57	744	1271	145
August	93	136	68	115	75	113	57	108	140	170
September	123	136	84	117	97	115	63	101	165	170
October	123	132	85	123	105	123	60	106	1674	2021
November	136	145	98	128	112	128	72	112	200	225
December	136	145	95	125	112	124	70	110	215	225
July-Dec	93	145	68	128	70	128	57	112	127}	225
1917.										
January	135	155	102	134	1201	129	85	122	215	227
February	140	155	108	130	122	129	85	117	215	227
March	140	162	108	136	127	137	92	129	215	227
April	153	170	116	162	138	1624	102	155	225	305
May	167	182	128	165	153	166	99	155	230	240
June	158	170	116	162	138	1621	102	155	225	305
JanJune	135	182	102	165	1201	166	85	155	215	305
July	175	182	120	160	152	162	95	160	205	230
August	175	185	112	150	120	152	93	150	2274	2571
September	158	171	116	146	124	144	98	149	230	250
October	153	171	120	144	127	1414	l 88	138	240	250
November	147	160	115	141	123	140	95	187	240	2521
December	150	176	125	163	136	160	111	160	250	285
July-Dec	147	185	112	163	120	162	88	160	205	- 285

TABLE 46.—Barley and malt: International trade, calendar years 1911-1916.

[See "General note," Table 10.] EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

			լա	o omitted	٠,					
		Barley.			Malt.		Barley and malt in terms of barley.			
Country.	A verage 1911-1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	Average 1911–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	A verage 1911–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	
FROM—						1			6	
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.		Bushels.	Bushels.	
Algeria	4,720	1,690					4,720	1,690		
Argentina	917	3,440	3, 104				917	3,440	3, 104	
Austria-Hungary	7,529	-		11,816			18, 271	· · · · · · · · ·		
Belgium	3,629	<u>-</u>	-	246	-		3,853	••••		
British India	17, 129	7,441	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •				17, 129	7,441		
Bulgaria	1,700					81	1,700 6,670	47 676	9,980	
Canada:	6,656 608	4,665 1,287	9,906	15 25	12 298	97	631	1,558	8,800	
China	660	1, 287	45	25	290	}	660	1,555	4.5	
Denmark	3,473	3	30	97			3,561	3	7	
France	609	536	135	33	701	545	639	1,173	630	
Germany	139		100	1,194	.02	-	1, 225	-,		
Netherlands	28, 995	141		678	ii		29,611	151		
Roumania	16,690			3			16,692			
Russia	168, 289	331	123	189	343	401	168, 461	643	488	
United Kingdom	107	79	6	908	3,982	1,745	932	3,699	1,593	
United States	8, 177	26, 491	22,486	244	2,253	5, 103	8,490	28, 539	27, 125	
Other countries	15, 560	2, 124		10	1	. 	15, 569	2, 125	i	
Total	285, 587	48, 419	i	15, 458	. 7,601		299,641	55, 329	ala	
	,	,	l		1 .,	D	gitízed by	GUU	RIC.	

Table 46.—Barley and malt: International trade, calendar years 1911-1916—Continued. IMPORTS.

		Barley.			Malt.			nd malt of barley.	in terms
Country.	A verage 1911-1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	A verage 1911–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	A verage 1911-1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)
INTO— Argentina Austria-Hungary	Bushels. 3 838	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels. 1,437	Bushels, 720	Bushels. 1,085	Bushels. 1,310 839	Bushels. 656	Bushels.
Beigium Brazil British South Africa. Canada	19,546 1 2 33 278	7 5 39 343	2	759 1,074 383 147	944 232 43	718 287 9	20, 236 978 351 166	865 216 78	666 261 10
Cuba	2,041 690 6,993	343 4,414 365 4,242 241	70 10, 200 199	62 218 178 237	95 145 354	169 227 404	278 2,098 889 7,155 526	343 4,414 451 4,374 563	224 10,400 560
lermany taly Vetherlands Vorway	150, 706 815 37, 646 4, 218	201 5,083 1,133	38 5,846 2,291	3, 122 3, 893 126	474 1,635 259	522 192	153,544 815 41,184 4,333	632 6,569 1,368	511 5,84 2,46
Russia	940 1,143 51,636 1,751	271 1,057 27,969 688	1,172 36,909	37 3,626 100 556	1,743 7 515	1,207 54	974 4,440 51,727 2,253	271 2,642 27,975 1,157	2, 26 36, 95
Total	279, 591	46,059		15, 956	7,166		294,096	52, 574	

RYE.

TABLE 47.—Rye: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
NORTH AMERICA. United States	A cres. 3, 129, 000	Acres. 3,213,000	Acres. 4,102,000	Bushels. 54,050,000	Bushels. 48, 862, 000	Bushels. 60, 145, 000
Canada: Quebec. Ontario. Manitoba. Saskatchewan. Alberta. Other.	9,000 78,000 6,000 3,000 17,000 (1)	8,000 69,000 30,000 23,000 18,000 (1)		145,000 1,551,000 155,000 76,000 463,000 4,000	118,000 1,208,000 557,000 548,000 440,000 5,000	
Total Canada	112,000	148,000		2,394,000	2,876,000	
Mexico	(2)	(2)	(1)	. 70,000	70,000	70,000
Total				56, 514, 000	51, 808, 000	
SOUTH AMERICA.				•		
Argentina. Chile. Uruguay.	229,000 4,000 (1)	212,000 11,000 (1)	180,000 (2) (1)	1,811,000 185,000 1,000	2,008,000 187,000 1,000	858,000 1,000
Total				1,997,000	2,196,000	
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary; Austria Hungary Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina	3 3, 120, 000 2, 625, 000 (1) (2)		(2)	\$51,211,000 45,975,000 2,500,000 600,000	999	(P)
Total Austria-Hungary				100, 286, 000		

¹ Less than 500 acres.

² No official statistics.

^{*} Galicia and Bukowina not included

TABLE 47.—Rye: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1915-1917—Contd.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1915	1916	1917	1915	1916	1917
EUROPE—continued.						
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
Belgium Bulgaria	1 645,000 1 527,000	(2)	(2)	18,000,000 7,622,000	8, 490, 000	(3)
enmark	521,000	481,000	436,000	13,001,000	10,569,000	8, 858, 000
inland	* 592,000			10,000,000	'/0\	(2)
rance 4	2,309,000	2,149,000	2,002,000	33, 148, 000	33,351,000	27,509,000
ermany	15,843,000	290,000	(3)	360, 310, 000	(3)	(2)
alyetherlands	294,000	290,000	279,000	4,362,000	5,582,000	4,460,000
	546,000	499,000	463,000	13,726,000	12,391,000	11,958,000
orwayoumania	48,000 187,000	48,000 200,000	48,000	829,000 2,911,000	943,000 (3)	(2)
tussia:						
Russia proper 4	59,766,000	55,637,000		875, 422, 000	843,740,000	
Poland Northern Caucasia	328,000	(2)	(2)	4,615,000	(2)	(2) (2)
Total	60,094,009			880, 037, 000	••••	
ierbia	(3)	(2)	(3)	800,000	(2)	(2)
pain	1,820,000	1,846,000	1,800,000	26, 102, 000	28, 782, 000	(1) 24,365,000
weden	965,000	913,000	813,000	23, 133, 000	22, 929, 000	15,747,000
United Kingdom	62,000	60,000	64,000	1,700,600	(2)	
Total				1, 495, 967, 000		
ASIA.						
Russia:		ł				
Central Asia (4 Gov-	1	ŀ	1			
ernments of)	340,000	(8)	(3)	2,785,000	(3)	(°)
Siboria (4 Govern-					400	<u></u>
ments of) Transcaucasia (1 Gov-	2, 452, 000	(2)	(2)	20,143,000	(2)	(2)
ernment of)	1,000	(2)	(3)	17,000	(2)	(2)
Total Russia (Asi-						
atic)	2,793,000			22,945,000		
AUSTRALASIA.						
Australia:	1	1	i			Ì
Queensland	(5) 3,000	(6) 3,000		1,000	1,000	
New South Wales	3,000	3,000		36,000	32,000	
Victoria South Australia	2,000 1,000	3,000		13,000	43,000	
Western Australia	1,000	3,000 1,000		6,000 3,000	31,000 4,000	
Tasmania	1,000	1,000		9,000	17,000	
Total Australia	8,000	11,000	10,000	67,000	127,000	131,000
Grand total				1 577 400 000		
GLERICE MORRI				1,577,490,000		

<sup>Data for 1914.
No official statistics.
Census of 1910.</sup>

TABLE 48.—Rye: Total production of countries named in Table 47, 1895-1915.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899	Bushels. 1, 468, 212, 000 1, 499, 250, 000 1, 300, 645, 000 1, 461, 171, 000 1, 583, 179, 000 1, 557, 634, 000	1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	Bushels. 1,416,022,000 1,647,845,000 1,659,961,000 1,742,112,003 1,495,751,000 1,433,395,000	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911	Bushels. 1, 538, 778, 000 1, 590, 057, 000 1, 747, 123, 060 1, 673, 473, 000 1, 753, 933, 000 1, 886, 517, 000	1913 1914 1915	Bushels. 1, 880, 387, 000 1, 596, 882, 000 1, 577, 490, 000

<sup>Excludes territory occupied by the enemy.
Less than 500 acres.</sup>

TABLE 49.—Rye: Average yield per acre in undermentioned countries, 1890-1916.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean). 1	Ger- many.1	Austria.1	Hungary proper.1	France. 2	Ireland.
A verage: 1890-1899	Bushels. 13. 9 15. 7 16. 3	Bushels. 10. 4 11. 5 12. 5	Bushels. 20. 9 25. 6 28. 3	Bushele. 16. 1 19. 0 22. 2	Bushels. 17. 6 18. 5	Bushels. 17. 6 17. 1 16. 1	Buskels. 25.2 27.3 29.9
1906	16. 7 16. 4 16. 4 13. 4 16. 0 15. 6 16. 8 16. 2 16. 8 17. 3	8.8 10.8 11.0 12.6 12.3 10.5 14.3 13.5 12.1	25. 1 25. 8 28. 0 28. 8 27. 1 28. 2 29. 5 30. 4 25. 4 22. 8	19.9 18.9 22.0 22.3 21.3 20.9 23.3 22.0 *23.7	19.8 16.0 17.5 17.8 18.9 18.7 19.4 19.6 16.1	16. 3 18. 2 16. 8 18. 1 14. 7 16. 8 16. 5 17. 0 16. 6 14. 3 15. 4	27. 27. 30. 30. 39. 30. 30. 29. 30. 29.
Average (1907–1916)	16.0					16.3	29.

Bushels of 56 pounds.
 Winchester bushels.

TABLE 50.—Rye: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

	age farm	I.			•	i. ⁻	Domestic exports, in
per acre.	roduction. price per bushel	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		owing ay.	rye flour, fiscal year beginning
	Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	July 1.
Acres. Bush. Busheli 14, 189,	000	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cus.	Bushels
21,101,	000						·····
. 1,548,000 13.5 20,865,		17, 150, 000			142	150	234,97
1,689,000 13.7 23,184,		23, 281, 000	132	157	173	185	564,901
1,651,000 13.6 22,505, 1,658,000 13.6 22,528,		21,349,000 17,342,000	1061	118 771	100 78	1154 834	92, 86 199, 45
16,919,		27,012,000			·····		155, 10
1,176,000 13.2 15,474,	000 73.2	11,327,000	67	74	81	91	87.17
1,070,000 14.4 15.366.	000 71.1	10,928,000	62	637	75	93	832, 68
1,049,000 14.2 14,889,		10,071,000	573	70	681	70	611,74
1,150,000 13.2 15,142, 1,117,000 13.4 14,991,		10,638,000	70 93	81 994	91	102	1,923,40 267,05
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,				_		1 -	
1,360,000 13.0 17,722, 1,468,000 13.9 20,375.		11,894,000 12,505,000	67 654	68 1 73	611 70	701	589, 150 2, 234, 850
1,413,000 15.0 21,170,		12, 202, 000	551	561	54	66	4, 249, 68
1.623.000 15.9 25.843.		13,566,000	44	441	47	52	4, 877, 821
1,625,000 14.5 23,639,	000 65.6	15,507,000	731	81	731	85	2,943,894
. 1,848,000 10.8 19,832,	000			·····	·····		• · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
. 1,768,000 13.9 24,541,	000 75.6	18, 565, 000	82	911	115	118	1,955,155
. 1,789,000 11.6 20,705,		19, 327, 000	961	98"	77	83	1,003,600
. 2,228,000 13.4 29,960,		18, 439, 900	57	581	62	67	2, 206, 213
2,315,000 12.1 28,059, 2,344,000 12.2 28,640.		16,301,000	561	60	603	624	6, 247, 590
2,344,000 12.2 28,640,	000 51.9	14,857,000	51	52	68	73	2,974,390
2,129,000 10.2 21,756,		12, 595, 000	584	61	58	61	216, 690
. 2,130,000 11.5 24,489,		13, 181, 000	53	544	54}	561	377,302
2,053,000 10.1 20,693, 2,365,000 12.0 28,415.		11, 283, 000	551	61	63	68	94, 827 309, 266
2,365,000 12.0 28,415, 2,171,000 13.1 28,420,		16,722,000 12,010,000	50 44	52 454	39 491	41½ 54	2, 280, 975
2,171,000 13.1 28,421, \$,178,000 13.1 28,421,		10,010,000	32	209	103		J

<sup>Galicia and Bukowina not included.
Poland not included.</sup>

TABLE 50.—Rye: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849–1917—Continued.

		Aver-		Aver-		Chic	ago ca: bushel	sh pric , No. 2	e per L	Domestic exports, in-
Year.	Acreage harvested.	yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per bushel	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		wing ay.	cluding rye flour, fiscal year beginning
				Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	
	Acres.	Bush.	Bushels.	Cents.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels.
1890	2,142,000	12.0	25,807,000	62.9	16, 230, 000	641	684	83	92	358, 263
1891 18 92	2,176,000	14.6 12.9	31,752,000	77.4 54.2	24,589,000	86	92 51	70½ 50¾	79 62	12,068,628
1893	2, 164, 000 2, 038, 000	13.0	27, 979, 000 26, 555, 000	51.3	15, 160, 000 13, 612, 000	46 45	474	444	48	1,493,924 249,152
1894	1,945,000	13.7	26,728,000	50.1	13, 395, 000	474	492	621	67	32,045
	2,010,000		20,120,000	~~	10,000,000	3	""	029	٠.	,
1895	1,890,000	14.4	27, 210, 000	44.0	11,965,000	82	354	33	364	1,011,128
1896	1,831,000	13.3	24, 369, 000	40.9	9,961,000	37	424	32 1	35	8,575,663
1897	1,704,000	16.1	27,363,000	44.7	12, 240, 000	457	47	48	75	15, 562, 035
1898	1,643,000	15.6	25, 658, 000	46.3	11,875,000	521	551	564	62	10, 109, 822
1899	1,659,000	14.4	23,962,000	51.0	12, 214, 000	49	52	53	561	2,382,012
1899	2,054,090	18.4	25, 569, 000	•••••				 -		
1900	1,591,000	15.1	23,996,000	51.2	12, 295, 000	454	494	514	54	2,345,512
1901	1,988,000	15.3	80,345,000	55.7	16,910,000	59	65	541	58	2,712,077
1902	1,979,000	17.0	33 , 631, 000	50.8	17,081,000	48	49	48	501	5, 445, 273
1903	1,907,000	15.4	29 , 363, 000	54.5	15,994,000	501	52	00±	78	784,068
1904	1,793,000	15.2	27, 242, 000	68.8	18,748,000	73	75	70	84	29,749
1905	1,730,000	16.5	28, 486, 000	61.1	17,414,000	64	68	58	62	1,387,826
1906	2,002,000	16.7	33,375,000	58.9	19, 671, 000	61	65	lão.	874	769,717
1907	1,926,000	16.4	31,566,000	73.1	23,068,000	75	82	79	86	2,444,588
1908	1,948,000	16.4	31, 851, 000	73.6	23, 455, 000	75	771	83	90	1, 295, 701
1909	2,006,000	16.1	32, 239, 000					l	1	.,,
1909	2,196,000	15.4	29,52 0,000	71.8	21, 163, 000	72	80	74	80	242, 262
19101	2, 185, 000	16.0	34, 897, 000°	71.5	24, 953, 000	80	82	90	113	40, 123
1911	2, 127, 000	15.6	83, 119, 000	83.2	27, 557, 000	91	94	80	951	31,384
1912	2,117,000	16.8	35,664,000	66.3	23,636,000	58	64	60	64	1,854,738
1913	2,557,000	16.2	41,381,000	63.4	26,220,000	61	65	62	67	2, 272, 492
		1					1	-		1
1914		16.8	42,779,000	86.5	37, 018, 000	1071	1124	115	122	13,026,778
1915	8,129,000	17.3	54,050,000	83.4	45,083,000	944	981	963	993	15, 250, 151
1916		15.2	48, 862, 000	122.1	59, 676, 000	130	151	200	240	13,703,527
1917	4,102,000	14.7	60,145,000	166.3	100, 025, 000	176	184			

¹ Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 51.—Rye: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1917.
[000 omitted.]

State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Vermont. Massachusetts Connecticut. New York. New Jersey		Bushels. 20 57 144 2,565 1,276	Dollars. 35 114 302 4,720 2,233	Missouri North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas	Acres. 30 1,040 350 215 76	Bushels. 441 9,880 5,600 3,354 1,140	Dollars. 728 16, 203 8, 680 5, 199 1, 904
Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland Virginia West Virginia	260 1 24 77 20	4,420 16 384 1,155 270	7, 514 28 645 2, 021 456	KentuckyTennesseeAlabamaTexasOklahoma	80 12 4 2	375 120 38 20 90	656 234 102 39 153
North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Ohio Indiana	52 17 15 90 200	520 170 128 1,620 3,000	1,040 484 346 2,608 4,800	Arkansas	2 9 18 27	27 114 252 482	40 188 391 631
Tilinois. Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa.	43 341 410 410 50	752 5,115 7,585 7,585 900	1,241 8,440 12,819 12,667 1,395	Utah	13 2 7 81	104 81 89 356 _{Oy} 60, 145	166 42 156 605

TABLE 52.—Rye: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1891-1918.

Year.	De- cem- ber of pre- vious year.	April.	May.	June.	When har- vested.	Year.	De- cem- ber of pre- vious year.	April.	May.	June.	When har- vested.
1891 1.92 1893 1 94 1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 1999 1900 1901 1902 1903 1904	P.ct. 99. 0 88. 8 89. 4 94. 6 96. 2 94. 9 99. 8 91. 0 98. 9 98. 2 99. 1 89. 9 93. 1 92. 7	P. ct. 95.4 87.0 85.7 94.4 87.0 82.9 88.9 92.1 84.8 93.1 85.4 97.9 82.3	P. ct. 97. 2 88. 9 82. 7 90. 7 88. 7 87. 7 88. 0 94. 5 85. 2 88. 5 94. 6 83. 4 93. 3 81. 2	P. ct. 95.4 6 91.0 84.6 93.2 85.7 85.2 89.9 97.1 84.5 87.6 93.9 88.1 90.6 86.3	P. ct. 93.9 92.8 85.3 87.0 80.7 88.4 93.4 94.6 85.6 80.4 93.0 90.2 89.5 88.9	1905 1906 1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1916 1917	P. cf. 90. 5 95. 4 96. 2 91. 4 87. 6 94. 1 92. 6 93. 3 93. 5 95. 3 93. 6 91. 5 88. 8	P. ct. 92.1 90.9 92.0 89.1 87.2 92.3 89.3 87.9 91.3 89.5 87.8 86.0	P. ct. 93.5 92.9 90.3 88.1 91.3 96.9 87.5 91.0 93.4 93.3 88.7 88.8	P. ct. 94.0 86.9 88.1 91.3 89.6 88.6 90.6 88.7 90.9 93.6 92.0 86.9 84.3	P. ct. 93. 2 91. 3 89. 7 91. 4 87. 5 85. 0 88. 6 92. 9 92. 0 87. 0 87. 0

TABLE 53 .- Rye: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			7	rield	per	асте	(bu	sbels).			F	arm		e per	bush	nel	per	lue acre lars).1
State.	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916.	1017
Vt	17. 9 19. 3 17. 6 17. 8	16.5 18.5 16.5 16.2	16. 2 18. 7 17. 0 16. 3	17.0 20.0 18.3 18.0	16. 0 18. 5 16. 7 16. 4	18. 5 17. 5 16. 5 17. 5	18. 5 19. 3 17. 2 18. 0	19.0 19.0 17.7 18.5	20.0 21.5 12.7 20.0	18.5 19.6 18.0 19.0	19.0 20.5 19.0 18.5	112 108 97 94	90 98 92 75 80	80 161 98 89 82	85 102 102 93 93	120 127 125 128 117	200 210 184 175	19. 94 19. 78 16. 32 16. 80	35. 00 38. 00 43. 05 34. 96 32. 38
Pa	15, 2 15, 5 13, 0 13, 5	15. 5 15. 0 12. 5 13. 0	14. 0 14. 1 12. 3 13. 5	15. 5 16. 1 13. 5 12. 9	15. 0 14. 5 11. 5 11. C	14. 0 15. 5 12. 5 13. 0	14. 0 14. 4 12. 3 13. 5	17. 5 17. 0 13. 0 14. 5	15. 5 16. 5 14. 5 14. 0	15. 0 15 5 12. 5 16. 0	16. 0 16. 0 15. 0 13. 5	97 100	74 79 76 81 87	83 92 86 90 90	84 99 88 93 93	109 123 110 107 119	178 168 175 169	14. 46 13. 91 11. 83 13. 55	28.90 28.48 26.88 26.25 22.82
N. C	10. 1 9. 3 16. 5 1 5. 2	9. 6 8. 7 16. 5 15. 0	9. 8 9. 0 17. 2 16. 5	10. 4 16. 5 15. 8	10. 0 9. 5 15. 5 13. 7	9. 5 9. 2 15. 5 14. 5	10. 5 9. 5 16. 5 15. 2	11.5 9.3 17.0 16.3	10. 0 9. 2 17. 5 16. 0	9.8 9.5 14.5 14.0	10. 0 8. 5 18. 0 15. 0	155 90 87	98 150 135 69 62 65	105 150 150 81 85	105 151 140 83 82 83	130 185 160 120 119	285 270 161 160	16. C0 13. 55 13. 74 12. 58	20.00 28.50 22.95 28.96 24.00
III	14. 9 17. 4 18. 7 18. 4	15. 5 19. 0 18. 5 20. 0	15. 5 16. 3 19. 0 17. 8	15. 3 16. 0 17. 0 18. 5	14. 6 17. 0 18. 7 18. 0	13.3 18.3 23.0 19.0	14.3 17.5 19.0 18.2	16. 0 16. 5 18. 8 19. 0	15. 5 18. 5 19. 5 18. 5	14.3 16.2 15.0 17.0	15. 0 18. 5 18. 5 18. 0	89 89 83 83 82	62 57 48 60	91 91 89 77	85 87 81 80	130 132 127 115	165 169 167 155	12. 77 14. 73 14. 44 14. 34	28. 88 24. 75 31. 26 30. 90 27. 90
N. Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans	14.9 16.5 15.7 14.8	18. 0 17. 5 16. 0 13. 3	18. 4 17. 5 16. 5 14. 2	8. 5 17. 0 16. 0 14. 0	16. 6 10. 0 13. 0 11. 0	18. 0 19. 5 16. 0 15. 9	14. 4 13. 2 14. 5 14. 0	17. 1 17. 0 16. 0 20 . 0	15. 0 19. 5 17. 5 16. 0	13. 3 18. 0 16. 0 14. 5	9. 5 16. 0 15. 6 15. 0	80 78 79 88	45 50 60 75	84 78 74 80	79 76 73 76 94	125 118 116 110	164 155 155 167	11. 55 13. 2 1 12. 17 13. 0 8	24. 26 15. 58 24. 80 24. 18 25. 05 21. 88
Tenn Ala Tex Okia Ark	11. 3 11. 1 13. 2 12. 1	12. 5 16. 0 15. 5 13. 5	10. 7 11. 3 11. 2 13. 5	11. 0 12. 0 11. 5 13. 7	11. 9 10. 0 10. 0 9. 5	11.5 11.5 16.6 12.0	12.0 11.0 15.0 9.5	13. 0 13. 0 14. 8 16. 0	10. 5 10. 0 17. 0 13. 5	10. 0 13. 0 10. 0 16. 0	10. 0 9. 5 10. 0 10. 0	110 147 116	99 140 101 86	98 110 99 95 105	103 135 103 77 100	135 175 120 125	195 26% 196 170	12.04 16.27 15.51 11.34	19.50 25.46 19.60 17.00 20.25
Mont	21.3 19.1 16.5 15.6	20. 0 22. 0 15. 5 15. 5	29. 0 26. 0 22. 0 22. 0	20. 0 18. 5 14. 0 18. 5	23. 0 20. 0 12. 0 15. 5	23. 5 19. 0 19. 5 15. 0	21. C 19. 0 17. 0 17. 0	21.0 17.0 17.5 17.5	22. 5 20. 0 17. 5 15. 5	20. 5 15. 5 14. 0 12. 0	12. 7 14. 0 16. 0 8. 0	79 90 78 79 75	55 64 60 60	70 81 65 60	65 90 70 65	96 108 106 100	165 155 146 160	14. 93 14. 60 11. 85 10. 60	20. 26 21. 70 23. 36 12. 80 20. 92
Wash Oreg U. S	18. 9 16. 6	19. 5 18. 0	21.0 17.0	20. 5 15. 1	22. 0 19. 5	20.0 16.0	21.0 17.5	19. 7 16. 0	18. 2 18. 0	14. 5 17. 0	12.7 11.5	92 100	60 75	85 100	75 90	111 115	175 170	14. 42 15. 21	22. 22 19. 55

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

Table 54.—Rye: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.	Uni Sta		No Atla Sta	ntic		ith intic tes.	N. Co State of Mis	s east	N. Ce States of Mis	west	Son Cen Sta	tral	Far V	West- tates.
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
January February March April May June Jule August September October November December	Cts. 118.5 123.5 126.0 135.6 164.1 183.0 177.1 161.9 169.8 168.8 166.3	88. 3 85. 6 83. 6 83. 7 83. 8 83. 4 99. 7 104. 1 115. 3	123. 1 125. 7 132. 9 163. 8 190. 6 183. 1 181. 4 177. 3 175. 2	92.7 88.2 90.4 88.7 90.2 89.4 88.6 96.9 99.6 115.8	115. 2 121. 3 126. 2 154. 7 165. 3 159. 0 176. 7 174. 3 185. 7 177. 9	92. 6 96. 8 96. 0 93. 7 91. 8 87. 9 90. 5 95. 7 103. 2 103. 7	128. 8 136. 8 165. 6 181. 2 180. 6 182. 3 157. 6 169. 7 167. 8	108. 9 117. 3	121. 5 125. 6 137. 8 164. 9 186. 1 175. 7 175. 1 155. 7 164. 6 163. 3	76. 7 78. 8 78. 1 79. 4 77. 9 100. 1 102. 0 114. 8	129. 5 142. 2 138. 5 169. 7 160. 2 159. 0 187. 7 190. 8 204. 8	89. 8 91. 7 92. 3 92. 2 91. 3 84. 0 96. 3 109. 3 119. 5	105. 1 106. 2 125. 2 152. 0 153. 2 159. 5 168. 0 167. 6 159. 1	78.9 80.7 81.7 78.3 73.6 81.8 80.0 90.2
Average	157. 2	97.8	162.5	98.8	163. 1	97.8	158. 4	99.8	155.8	98.6	174.5	106. 4	146. 8	89. 5

TABLE 55.—Rye: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1917.

	Philad	elphia.	Cinch	nnati.	Chic	ago.	Dul	uth.	Cents. 1473 140 1324 135 1524 130 160 145 1524 1524 1525 1525 1525 1525 1525	ancisco 0 lbs.)
Date.	Low.	High.	No	. 2.	No	. 2.	Low.	High.	T	High.
	LOW.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	LOW.	Augu.	LOW.	High.
1912. January-June July-December	Cents. 82 68	Cents. 105 85	Cents: 78 62	Cents. 100 81	Cents. 75 58	Cents. 961 76	Cents. 66 53	Cents. 911 70	147	Cents. 172 172
1913. January-June July-December	65 65	70 77	60 60	70 72	58 61	653 709	52 50	59 65		147 <u>1</u> 165
1914. January-June July-December	65 65	75 125	62 60	71 115	58 55	67 1124	50 57	62 107	152½ 130	165 165
1915. January-June July-December	105 90	139 112	107 92	133 112	111 <u>1</u> 91	131 119	106 87	128 111		225 165
1916. January. February March April May June	106 110 115 105 95 90	112 115 118 110 105 95	99 90 90 98 92 92	104 106 100 104 101 100	97 90 90½ 94 96½ 97	1042 103 96 984 994	93 87 87 91 91	98 97 91 96 95	150 152 152 152	160 160 160 155 156 155
Janu a ry-June.	90	118	90	106	90	104}	87	98	150	160
July	90 100 110 125 143 135	100 110 125 150 155 155	96 103 123 125 139 138	105 1271 128 141 155 153	94 100 115 124 140 130	101 1261 1251 141 153 151	89 94 • 115 120 137 138	95 120 122 138 149 150	152½ 175	155 180 200 225 235 265
July-December	90	155	96	155	94	153	89	150	152}	265
1917. January February. March April May June	140 140 153 170 200 235	155 158 175 205 245 215	140 146 153 170 200 230	152 154 164 192 220 240	138 140 152 168 200 230	148½ 152 170 205 240 245	136 134 147 164 198 218	144 147 165 200 240 235	250 240 240 230 350 (1)	265 265 250 305 400 (1)
January-June.	140	245	140	240	138	245	134	240	230	400
July August September October November December	240 (1) (1) (1) (1) 173 175	245 (1) (1) (1) (1) 186 186	220 170 174 177 170 179	280 215 190 188 180 184	210 165 179 178 176 176	243 215 192 1904 1804 184	185 168 180 175 174 179	298 190 190 186 178 1841	290 290 290 325 390 390	300 300 350 400 400 400
July-December	173	245	170	280	165	243	168	298	290	400
	·			1 Nomin	nal.		Digitiz	zed by	300c	gle

TABLE 56.—Rye (including flour): International trade, calendar years 1911-1916.

[See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	A verage 1911-1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	Country.	Average 1911–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)
FROM—	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	FROM-	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushela
Argentina	443	194	129	Roumania	3,411		
Belgium Bulgaria	914 2,336			Russia United States	84, 921 855	13,331	12, 31 15, 83
Canada		501	989	Other countries	514	13,655 69	10,00
Denmark	303	1		1		!	
Germany	44,951	<i>.</i>		Total	107,587	27,777	l
Netherlands	18,870	26	14	1	•	1	

IMPORTS.

INTO-				INTO-			
Austria-Hungary Belgium	1, 224 6, 157			Norway	10,520	7,885	7,329
Denmark	8,587	2,707		Sweden	5, 231 3, 769 - 729	1,770	
Finland France	15, 472 4, 138	13, 425 36	12,639 14	Switzerland United Kingdom	- 729 2, 195	16 1, 436	42 2, 054
Germany	16,900 721			Other countries	677	77	
Netherlands	31,023	2, 232	721	Total	107,343	29,589	

BUCKWHEAT.

TABLE 57.—Buckwheat: Acreage, production, and value in the United States, 1849-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

Year.	Acreage (thousands of acres).	A verage yield per acre (bushels).	Pro- duc- tion (thou- sands of bush- els).	A ver- age farm price Dec. 1 (cents per bushel).	Farm value Dec. 1 (thou- sands of dol- lars).	Year.	Acre- age (thou- sands of acres).	Average yield per acre (bushels).	Production (thousands of bushels).	Average farm price Dec. 1 (cents per bushel).	Farm value Dec. 1 (thou- sands of dol- lars).
1849 1859 1866	1,046 1,228	21. 8 17. 4	8,967 17,672 22,792 21,359	67. 6 78. 7	15, 413 16, 812	1890 1891 1802 1893	845 849 861 816 789	14. 7 15. 0 14. 1 14. 9 16. 1	12, 433 12, 761 12, 143 12, 132 12, 668	57. 4 57. 0 51. 8 58. 3 55. 6	7, 133 7, 272 6, 296 7, 074 7, 040
1868 1869 1869 1870 1871	1,114 1,029 537 414	17. 8 16. 9 18. 3 20. 1	19,864 17,431 9,822 9,842 8,329	78. 0 71. 9 70. 5 74. 5	15,490 12,535 6,937 6,208	1895 1896 18)7 1898 1899	763 755 718 678 670	20. 1 18. 7 20. 9 17. 3 16. 6	15,841 14,690 14,997 11,722 11,094	45, 2 39, 2 42, 1 45, 0 55, 7	6,936 5,522 6,319 5,271 6,184
1873 1874 1875 1876	454 453 576 666 650	18. 1 17. 3 17. 7 17. 5 14. 5 15. 7	8,134 7,838 8,017 10,082 9,669 10,177	73. 5 75. 0 72. 9 62. 0 66. 6 66. 9	5,979 5,879 5,844 6,255 6,436 6,808	1899 1900 1901 1902 1903	807 638 811 805 804 794	13. 9 15. 0 18. 6 18. 1 17. 7 18. 9	9,567 15,126 14,530 14,244 15,098	55. 8 56. 3 59. 6 60. 7 62. 2	5, 341 8, 523 8, 655 8, 651 9, 331
1878 1879 1879 1880	673 640 848 823 829	18. 2 20. 5 15. 9 17. 8 11. 4	12, 247 13, 140 11, 817 14, 618 9, 486	52. 6 59. 8 59. 4 86. 5	6,441 7,856 8,682 8,206	1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	760 789 800 803 834	19. 2 18. 6 17. 9 19. 8 20. 9	14,585 14,642 14,290 15,874 17,438	58. 7 59. 6 69. 8 75. 6	8,565 8,727 9,975 12,004
1882	957 879 914 918 911	13. 0 8. 9 12. 6 13. 8 12. 9 11. 9	11,019 7,669 11,116 12,626 11,869 10,844	73. 0 82. 2 58. 9 55. 9 54. 5 56. 5	8,039 6,304 6,549 7,057 6,465 6,122	1910 1	833 841 805 792	16.9 20.5 21.1 22.9 17.2 21.3	14,849 17,598 17,549 19,249 13,833 16,881	70. 1 66. 1 72. 6 66. 1 75. 5 76. 4	10,346 11,636 12,735 12,720 10,445 12,892
1888 1889	913 837	13. 2 14. 5 14. 5	12,050 12,110 12,110	63. 3 50. 5	7,628 6,113	1915 1916 1917	769 828 1,006	19. 6 14. 1 17. 4	15,056 11,662 17,460	78. 7 112. 7 1 6 0. 1	11,843 13,147 27,954

BUCKWHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 58.—Buckwheat: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1917.
[000 omitted.]

State.	Acre- age.	Pro- duc- tion.	Farm value Dec.1.	State.	Acre- age.	Pro- duo- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland Virginia West Virginia North Carolina	2 830 16 350 8 11	Bush. 322 38 286 30 52 5,940 60 220 696 990 240	Dolls. 483 70 429 50 104 9,504 455 10,269 89 363 1,044 1,530 312	Ohio. Indiana. Illinois. Michigan. Wisconsin. Mirnesota. Iowa. Missouri. Nebraska. Tennessee. United States.	Acres. 25 10 4 75 28 11 11 6 2 4	Bush. 430 150 76 675 281 154 132 90 32 68	Dolls. 658 232 129 992 489 208 264 130 48 102

TABLE 59.—Buckwheat: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1897-1917.

Year.	Aug.	Sept.	When har- vested.	Year.	Aug.	Sept.	When har- vested.	Year.	Aug.	Sept.	When har- vested.
1897 1898 1899 1990 1901 1902	P. ct. 94.9 87.2 93.2 87.9 91.1 91.4 93.9	P. ct. 95. 1 88. 8 75. 2 80. 5 90. 9 86. 4 91. 0	P.ct. 90. 8 76. 2 70. 2 72. 8 90. 5 80. 5 83. 0	1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	P. ct. 92.8 92.6 93.2 91.9 89.4 86.4 87.9	P. ct. 91. 5 91. 8 91. 2 77. 4 87. 8 81. 0 82. 3	P. ct. 88. 7 91. 6 84. 9 80. 1 81. 6 79. 5 81. 7	1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917	P. ct. 82. 9 88. 4 85. 5 88. 8 92. 6 87. 8 92. 2	P. ct. 83. 8 91. 6 75. 4 87. 1 88. 6 78. 5 90. 2	P. ct. 81. 4 89. 2 65. 9 83. 3 81. 9 66. 9 74. 8

Table 60.—Buckwheat: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

								~ •••											
			,	rield	per	acre	(bus	hels).			F	arm		e per	bush	neI	per	due acre lars).
State.	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1161	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	7161	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-уевгателеве, 1912-1916.	7161
le	25. 8 24. 2 18. 4	21.5 22.0 18.0	28, 0 22, 0 22, 0 19, 3 19, 5	31.0 24.0 22.0	27.3 24.3 21.0	31.0 30.0 21.0	31.0 25.0 17.0	25. 0 28. 0 18. 5	30. 0 27. 0 16. 0	20. 0 17. 5 16. 0	19.0 22.0 15.0	87 87 98	56 66 80 80 95	60 70 82 84 95	70 81 82 95 96	95 100 105 140 120	183 150 166	19. 38 20, 92 21, 02 16. 92 18, 75	34. 7 33. 00 24. 90
l. Y Ja el	20, 6 19, 6 19, 9	20, 0 19, 2 30, 0	24. 0 21. 8 19. 5 19. 8 16. 6	21. 5 19. 5 20. 5	20. 0 21. 9 19. 0	22, 0 24, 2 16, 0	22. 0 18. 5 17. 0	21.0 20.5 19.0	21.0 21.0 18.5	19.0 14.0 19.0	18.0 18.0 20.0	87 84 81	81 76 73 69 75	76 83 -76 76 81	80 83 78 75 72	122 108 111 118 110	158 163 148	14, 83 17, 50 15, 30 14, 61 15, 02	28. 4 29. 3 29. 6
a	21. 4 18. 5 19. 8	18, 0 16, 4 18, 5		23. 0 19. 0 18. 0	24.0 19.0 21.0	24. 0 17. 5 19. 5	21. 0 19. 3 18. 0	21.5 19.0 24.0	22. 0 17. 5 23. 0	18.3 17.5 17.7	20.0 20.0 17.2	91 86 88	80 78 78 76 76	84 83 83 76 78	80 80 82 77 80	95 101 85 110 112	170 130 153	17. 66 17. 66 14. 99 16. 55 14. 55	34, 0 26, 0 26, 3
l	14.6 14.9 16.8	13. 5 15. 2 18. 2		15.3 14.0 16.0	18.0 17.5 18.0	17.0 17.0 21.0	15. 0 16. 5 16. 5	18.5 17.5 17.0	14. 5 13. 0 17. 5	11.0 14.0 15.0	9.0 12.2 14.0	81 89 81	80 70 69 64 81	95 71 76 70 77	90 72 83 75 80	130 115 116 112 125	147 174 135	17. 08 11. 56 12. 59 13. 21 13. 77	13, 2 21, 2 18, 9
Vebr	15.3 18.0 17.0	18,0	16.0	20.0	16.0	18.0	20.0	18, 5	20.0	17.0	16.0	97	85 79 75	93 84 78	90 95 76	133 110 100	150	14, 03 17, 05 14, 87	24.0
U. S	19.5	19. 8	20. 9	20, 5	21. 1	22. 9	17. 2	21.3	19, 6	14.1	17, 4	85, 4	75. 5	76. 4	78.7	112, 7	160, 1	15. 13	27.7

BUCKWHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 61.—Buckwheat: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.		ited ites.		rth intic tes.		uth untic tes.		entral s cast ss. R.		entral s west ss. R.	Sor Cen Sta	tral
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
_	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Ctr.
February	117. 2 114. 6	81. 5 80. 7	121.3 117.0	81. 6 81. 1	100. 2 100. 3	82. 5 81. 3	113. 1 116. 7	78. 1 75. 6	125.0 127.0	87. 7 93. 0	100.0 85.0	80. (
March	124. 8	83. 2	130.0	83. 0	102.7	84. 9	117.9	79.6	143. 5	102. 7	100.0	74.
A pril	128. 3	83. 1	132.7	83. 5	114.5	81. 9	117.4	79.0	149. 5	101.0	98.0	76.
May	150.6	84.9	156.7	85. 2	127.8	83. 1	138.7	84.4	175.0	93. 5	121.0	74_
Tune	183. 7	87.0	191.9	88. 7	166. 6	81. 2	162. 3	80.0	175.0	100.0	126.0	74_0
July	209. 2	93.1	219.3	94.8	187.6	85. 6	180.1	90.6	217. 5	87.0	150.0	77. (
August	189. 3	89.0	193. 5	90.8	175. 9	83. 9	179.8	76. 9	220. 5	91. 7	139.0	75.
September	164.3	86.4	170.7	87. 1	150.1	84. 4	149. 4	82. 4	183.0	98.5	75.0	76.
October	154. 4	90. 4	153. 5	90.8	174.1	84.6	144.0	94.4	135.0	87. 5	101.0	80.
November	154. 2	102. 9	156.7	104.6	150.0	88.8	151.1	105.9	135. 5	115.0	100.0	77.
December	160. 1	112.7	161. 2	114.8	157.8	99. 1	155.1	114. 4	159. 3	120.4	150.0	100.

FLAX.

TABLE 62.—Flax: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916. [000 omitted.]

Production. Area. Fiber. Seed. Country. 1914 1915 1916 1915 1914 1916 1914 1915 1916 NORTH AMERICA. Acres. Bushels. Bushels. Bushels. Pounds. Pounds. Pounds. Acres. A cres. 1, 474 1,645 United States..... 1,387 13,749 14,030 14, 296 Canada: 84 338 Quebec....Ontario..... 5 34 697 62 374 9,061 5 40 958 4 15 498 42 210 Manitoba... 6, 131 614 6,692 1,310 Baskatchewan.... 80 70 1, 124 Alberta..... 81 Total, Canada. 1,084 807 599 7, 175 10,628 8,260 Mexico..... (1) (1) (1) 150 150 150 Total..... (1) 21,074 24,808 22,706 (1) (1) SOUTH AMERICA. Argentina.....Uruguay..... 4,397 128 4, 258 101 4,001 36, 928 963 45,040 39, 289 391 Total.... 4,525 37,891 45,628 39,680 4,359 4,045 EUROPE. Austria-Hungary: Austria. Hungary proper. Croatia-Slavonia. *37,046 *29,999 *8,640 *1,000 226, 110 (1) (1) (1) 2 455 2 332 * 32 * 16 8 255 8 18 (1) Bosnia-Herzegovina otal, Austria-Hungary..... Total.

¹ Data for 1913.



76,685

¹ No official statistics.

⁷³² 2 Galicia and Bukowina not included.

TABLE 62.—Flax: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916—Cont'd. [909 omitted.]

		Area.				Pro	duction.	`	
Country.	***	4045			Seed.			Fiber.	
	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
Belgium. Bulgaria. France 3 Ireland Italv. Netherlands. Roumania.	Acres. 32 2 46 49 22 19 21	Acres. (1) (1) 20 53 21 22 14	Acres. (1) (1) 15 91 21	Bushels. 2 387 8 8 336 (1) 323 218 165	Bushels (1) (1) (1) 161 (1) 323 295 134	Bushels. (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) (362 (1) (1)	Pounds. 2 39, 437 (1) 23, 370 18, 202 5, 071 10, 811 2, 137	Pounds. (1) (1) (1) 11, 061 21, 648 5, 512 12, 922 1, 187	Pounds. (1) (1) (1) (2) (1) (32,461 (5,512 (1) (1)
Russia: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	3, 401 (1) 182	2,843 (1) 48	3,506 (1) (1)	14, 222 (1) 1, 391	16,593 (1) 499	6 }			
Total	3,583	2, 891		15, 613	17,092		4 868, 632	815, 438	
Serbia	(¹) 3	(;)	(3)	(1)	(3)	{ }	⁽¹⁾ 401	{ }	(3)
Total				17, 785			1,044,746		
ASIA. British India 6	3,031	8, 325	3,334	15, 44 8	15, 880	19,040			
Russia: CentralAsia (4 Governments of) Siberia (4 Governments of) Transcaucasia (1 Government of)	100 191 (¹)	83 152 (¹)	(1) (1)	762 1,584	566 796	(1) (1)			
Total	`		\ <u>``</u>	17,794	- ` ′ -	<u> </u>			
AFRICA.									
Algeria	(1)	(¹)	(1)	* 15	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Grand total				94,559			1,044,746		

TABLE 63.—Flax (seed and fiber): Total production of countries named in Table 62, 1896-1914.

	Bushels. 82,684,000 1, 57,596,000 1, 72,938,000 1, 66,348,000 1, 62,432,000 1, 72,314,000 1, 83,891,000 1,	nction.		Production.						
Year.	Seed.	Fiber.	Year.	Seed.	Fiber.					
1896	82, 684, 000 57, 596, 000 72, 938, 000 66, 348, 000 62, 432, 000 72, 314, 000	Pounds. 1, 714, 205, 000 1, 498, 054, 000 1, 780, 693, 000 1, 138, 783, 000 1, 315, 931, 000 1, 364, 840, 000 1, 564, 840, 000 1, 592, 203, 000 1, 517, 922, 000 1, 594, 229, 000	1906	Bushels, 88, 105, 000 102, 960, 000 100, 850, 000 100, 820, 000 85, 253, 000 101, 339, 000 130, 291, 000 132, 477, 000 94, 559, 000	Pounds. 1, 871, 723, 000 2, 042, 390, 000 1, 907, 591, 000 13, 384, 524, 000 913, 112, 000 1, 011, 350, 000 1, 429, 967, 000 1, 384, 757, 000 1, 044, 746, 000					

No official statistics,
 Data for 1913.
 Excludes territory occupied by the enemy.

<sup>Includes 2 Governments in Siberia.
Includes hemp.
Including certain native States.</sup>

TABLE 64.—Flaxeed: Acreage, production, value, and condition in the United States, 1849–1917.

Note.—Figures in italics are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

				Average		Cond	lition of	growing	crop.
Year.	### Acres. Bushels. Bushels. \$63,00 ### Set,00 ### 10,250,00 ### 10,250,00 ### 10,250,00 ### 10,250,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 27,301,00 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,535,000 ### 28,5355,000	Production.	20-100	Farm value Dec. 1.	July 1.	Aug. 1.	Sept. 1.	When har- vested	
		yield per acre. Pr Bushels. 1 7.8 1 9.6 1 7.8 2 10.2 2 10.2 2 10.2 2 9.0 2 9.4 2	Bushels.	Cents.	Dollara.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P.d.	P. d.
Ψ			582,000						
359		-	567,000		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				
908			7 170 000						
280	1 310 000	7 9	10 950 000						
200	8, 111, 000	2.6	19,979,000						
	F,, 000		,,	1					
02	3,740,000	7.8	29, 285, 000	105.2	30, 815, 000	l			
03	3, 233, 000		27, 301, 000	81.7	22, 292, 900	86. 2	80.3	80.5	74.
Wa	2.204.000		23,401,000	99.3	23, 229, 000	86.6	78.9	85.8	87.
05	2,535,000		28, 478, 000	84.4	24,049,000	92.7	96.7	94.2	. 91.
06	2,508,000	10.2	25,576,000	101.3	25, 899, 000	93.2	92.2	89.0	87.
	9 984 MM		95 951 000	95.6	24,713,000	91.2	91.9	85.4	78.
nne	2 670 000		25, 805, 000	118.4	30,577,000	92.5	86.1	82.5	81.
00	2 742 000		25, 858, 000	110.4	00,011,000		- CO. 1		
			19 513 000	153.0	29,796,000	95.1	92.7	88.9	84.
101	2, 467, 000	5.2	12,718,000	231.7	29, 472, 000	65.0	51.7	48.3	47.
					l ' '				
)11	2,757,000	7.0	19,370,000	182.1	35, 272, 000	80.9	71.0	68.4	69.
12	2,851,000	9.8	28, 073, 000	114.7	32, 202, 000	88.9	87.5	86.3	83.
13	2, 291, 000	7.8	17,853,000	119.9	21,399,000	82.0	77.4	74.9	74.
14	1,645,000	8.4	13,749,000 14,030,000 14,296,000	126.0	17,318,000 24,410,000	90.5	82.1	72.9	77. 84.
)15)16	1,387,000	10.1	14,030,000	174.0	24,410,000	88.5	91.2	87.6	84. 86.
110	1,4/4,000	9.7	14,296,000	248.6	35,541,000	90.3	84.0	84.8	50. 51.
)17	1, 309, 000	4.7	8,473,000	296.8	25,148,000	84.0	60.6	50.2	31.

¹ Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 65.—Flaxeed: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1917.

State.	Acreage.	Average yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	Average farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Minnesota	Acres. 220,000 12,000 6,000 965,000 140,000	Bushels. 9.0 11.0 8.5 3.9 7.0	Bushels. 1,980,000 132,009 51,000 3,764,000 980,000	Dollars. 2. 95 2. 75 2. 75 3. 00 2. 99	Dollars. 5,841,000 363,000 140,000 11,277,000 2,930,000
Nebraska. Kansas. Montana. Wyoming. Colorado. United States.	5,000 34,000 422,000 3,000 2,000	5. 5 7. 0 8. 0 6. 5 7. 0	28,000 238,000 1,266,000 20,000 14,000 8,473,000	2. 50 2. 90 2. 95 2. 61 2. 50	70,000 6),000 3,735,000 52,000 35,000 25,14 5,000

TABLE 66.—Flazzeed: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

İ			Y	ield	per	асте	(bus	hels).			Fari	a pri	ce per	bush	el (ce	nts).	Value per acre (dollars).	
State.	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1913	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year sverage, 1912-1916.	1917
MinnIowaMoN. DakS. Dak	10. 1 6. 9 7. 9	10.9 7.0	8.1 9.3	12.2 8.4 3.6	8.0 3.0 7.6	6.0 9.7	9.4 5.0 7.2	9.5	8.0	10.0 7.0 10.3	11.0 8.5 3.9	165 157 179	123 123 115 121 120	128 120 104 128 123	176 150 135 178 167	240 215 212 252 247	295 275 275 300 299	14.4 9.2 14.7	2 26.55 4 30.25 6 23.38 9 11.70 8 20.93
Nebr Kans Mont Wyo Colo	8.0 6.1 9.0 9.3 7.2	11.0 6.5 11.5	7.0 12.0	8.2	3.0 7.7	6.0 12.0 12.0	6.0 9.0 9.9	6.0 8.0 7.0	10.5 13.0	5.8 9.5	5.5 7.0 3.0 6.5 7.0	165 174 210	110 116 115	125 120	145	230 234 248 225 196	290 295 261	8.8 14.9	3 13.75 2 20.30 6 8.85 16.96 5 17.50
U. S	8. 2	9.6	9.4	5. 2	7.0	9.8	7.8	8.4	10. 1	9.7	4.7	177.5	119.9	126.0	174.0	2 48.6	296.8	14.5	7 13, 90

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

Table 67.—Flaxseed: Farm price per bushel, on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.	United	States.	States Missi	Central east of ssippi ver.	States Missi	Central west of ssippi ver.	Far Western States.		
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	
January. February March. A pril. May June	253.7 253.1 266.1	Cents. 185.9 210.9 202.5 202.1 191.8 176.5	Cents. 228.0 230.0 238.0 270.0 280.0	200.0 150.0 192.0 198.0 180.0	Cents. 249. 9 257. 8 253. 8 265. 8 298. 6 295. 3	Cents. 184.7 211.2 204.6 201.8 190.9 174.1	Cents. 255.0 238.0 251.0 267.9 309.0 313.0	Cents. 193.0 210.0 192.0 205.0 197.0 191.0	
July	271.6 302.8 308.5 295.9	163. 2 178. 1 190. 2 199. 2 234. 7 248. 6	300.0 276.0 304.0 337.0	160.0 161.0 200.0 200.0 218.0 240.0	275.9 279.1 306.1 316.7 294.9 297.3	164.1 176.3 188.6 199.1 234.0 248.9	286. 6 242. 0 290. 0 275. 0 300. 0 294. 0	158.0 190.0 200.0 200.0 240.0 247.8	

TABLE 68.—Flaxseed: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1917.

	Cinci	nnati.	Minne	apolis.	Milws	sukee.	Dul	uth.
Date.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.		North-	Low.	High.
					Low.	High.		
1912. January-June July-December	\$2.50 1.50	\$2.56 2.80	\$2.01 1.22	\$2.36 2.10	\$2.01\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	\$2.39 2.181	\$2.00 1.22	\$2.53 2.20}
January-June	1. 50 1. 50	1. 50 1. 50	1. 231 1. 31	1. 40 1. 53½	1. 251 1. 301	1. 423 1. 543	1. 225 1. 84	1. 39 1. 53
JanuaryJune	1. 50 1. 40	1. 50 1. 50	1. 47½ 1. 28	1. 611 1. 88	1. 45½ 1. 30	1.75 1.98	1. 48 1. 28‡	1. 63 <u>1</u> 1. 93
Janua: y-June	1.70 1.70	1. 80 1. 70	1. 59 1. 52	2.06) 2.21	1. 51 1. 52	2.05 2.18	1.61½ 1.58	2.09 2.20
January 1916. February March April May	2. 85 2. 85 2. 85 2. 85 2. 85	2. 85 2. 85 2. 85 2. 85	2. 151 2. 25 2. 151 2. 00 1. 831 1. 731	2. 411 2. 39 2. 351 2. 221 2. 001 1. 89	2. 151 2. 25 2. 151 2. 00 1. 831 1. 732	2.38 2.35 2.324 2.194 2.054 1.844	2.173 2.23 2.154 2.01 1.844 1.76	2 42 2 43 2 32 2 19 2 05 1.97
January-June	2.85	2. 85	1.731	2.411	1.731	2. 38	1.76	2. 43
July August Beptemner October November December	2. 85 1. 50 1. 50 1. 50 1. 80 2. 25	2. 85 1. 50 1. 50 1. 80 2. 25 2. 25	1. 77 1. 60 2. 00‡ 2. 40 2. 59‡ 2. 75	2. 121 2. 28 2. 31 2. 70 2. 931 2. 94	1.77 2.04 2.001 2.40 2.593 2.764	2. 08 2. 24 2. 28 2. 67 2. 89 2. 88‡	1. 80 2. 05 2. 02½ 2. 43 2. 65½ 2. 79½	2 11 2 26 2 31 2 72 2 94 2 93
July-December	1. 50	2. 85	1.60	2.94	1.77	2. 89	1.80	2.94
January February March April May Juno	2. 25 2. 25 2. 25 2. 60 3. 00 3. 25	2. 25 2. 25 2. 25 2. 80 8. 25 3. 25	2. 831 2. 75 2. 751 2. 211 2. 92 2. 87	2. 941 2. 931 3. 00 8. 39 8. 61 3. 32	2 831 2 751 2 751 2 93 2 92 2 811	2. 911 2. 821 2. 91 3. 33 3. 55 3. 26	2. 85½ 2. 78 2. 79½ 2. 98 2. 95 2. 85½	2. 921 2. 86 2. 951 3. 39 3. 64 3. 28
January-June	2. 25	8. 25	2. 21 }	3. 61	2.751	3. 55	2.78	3. 64
July August September October November December	3. 25 3. 25 3. 30 8. 30 3. 30 4. 20	3. 25 8. 30 3. 30 3. 30 4. 20 4. 25	2. 64 3. 30 8. 16 3. 05 3. 184 3. 21	3. 36 3. 76 3. 55½ 3. 35½ 3. 43 3. 57	2. 68 3. 26 3. 16 3. 01 3. 184 3. 21	3. 30 3. 71 3. 55 3. 304 3. 41 3. 54	2.69 3.28 3.24 3.021 3.00 3.21	3. 35 3. 79 3. 57 3. 324 3. 46 3. 54
July-December	3. 25	4. 25	2. 64	3. 76	2. 68	3. 71	2. 69	3. 79

RICE.

TABLE 69.—Rice: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

[Expressed in terms of hulled rice.]

•		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NOETH AMERICA. United States. Hawaii 1 Porto Rico 1 Central America: Guatemala. Salvador.	Acres. 694,000 9,000 16,000 (*) 27,000	Acres. 803,000 (2) (2)	Acres. 869,000 - (2) (2)	Pounds. 656, 917, 000 25, 820, 000 4, 298, 000 24, 085, 000 12, 344, 000	(2) (2) 24, 015, 000	Pounds. 1, 125, 028, 000 (3) (2) (3) (3)
Costa Rica Honduras Mexico	7,000 (1) 41,000		66,000	33,921,000	(2) (3) 3, 252, 000 (2)	(a) (a) (a) 34, 222, 630
SOUTH AMERICA. Argentina	10,000 (3) 34,000 (3) (3)	\$,000 (1) 47,000 (2) (2)	17,000 (1) (2) (2) (3)	(3) 116, 416, 000 51, 160, 000 6, 913, 000 (3)	(2) 79, 380, 000 91, 630, 000 (2) 85, 500, 000	(2) 153, 235, 000 (3) (2) (2) 88, 000, 600
EUROPE.						
Bulgaria France Italy Russia (Northern Caucasia) Spain	37,000 31,000 361,000 1,000 97,000	8,000 (*) 356,000 (*) 99,000	9,000 (1) 883,000 (2) 100,000	8, 165, 000 \$ 980, 000 741, 263, 000 729, 000 836, 925, 000	8, 889, 000 762, 900, 000 (*) 320, 022, 000	16,000,000 (3) 708,058,000 (3) 328,931,000
ASIA.						ŀ
British India 4	76, 625, 000 685, 000 8 124, 000	78, 152, 000 785, 000 (1)	79, 700, 000 (³)	61,022,080,000 6 290, 819,000 8 87,321,000	73,525,760,000 5 319, 356, 000 (2)	76,336,960,000 (3) (2)
Jupan Formosa Korea Java and Madura Philippine Islands Russia: Transcaucasia	7, 434, 000 1, 263, 000 2, 645, 000 6, 346, 000 3, 076, 000	7, 491, 000 1, 241, 000 (2) (2) (2) 2, 794, 000	(2) (3) (3) (2) 2,819,000	1, 447, 709, 000 3, 819, 869, 000 7, 826, 026, 000 1, 403, 516, 000	1,503,101,000 3,571,182,000 (2) 1,099,914,000	18,315,793,000 (1) 3,936,361,000 (1) 1,234,332,000
and Turkestan 1	666,000 8 92,000 5,096,000	635, 000 (²) 5, 181, 000	89,000	512, 383, 000 5, 711, 132, 00 0	379, 817, 000 (2) 5, 517, 167, 000	(3)
AFRICA. Egypt	37,000 1,013,000 (2)	331,000 1,198,000 (3)	150,000 1,176,000 (*)	54,777,000 878,541,000 2,695,000	542, 439, 000 1, 023, 012, 000 1, 606, 000	236, 528, 000 1, 017, 470, 000
OCEANIA.						
Australia Fiji	(⁹) 12,000	(1)	(2)	7,000	(2)	(10) (1)

¹ Census of 1900.
2 No official statistics.
3 Data for 1913.
6 Excluding a large area, the production of which is not officially reported.
6 Excluding production for Matara, which in 1913 was 55,483,000 pounds.
6 Excluding Soerakarta, Djokjakarta, and private lands.
7 Excluding Khiva and Bokhara.
8 Data for 1912.
9 Less than 500 acres.
10 Less than 500 bushels.

RICE—Continued.

TABLE 70.—Rice (cleaned): Total production in principal countries for which estimates are available, 1900-1914.

[The figures below include the principal countries for which estimates are available. The totals shown are merely approximate. China and French Indo-China are not included below. Three Provinces of China in 1910 produced 47,204,000,000 pounds of rice. The totals below may represent at least two-thirds of the total world production of rice.]

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1900	Pounds. 100, 400, 000, 000 94, 400, 000, 000 101, 600, 000, 000 101, 800, 000, 000 110, 700, 000, 000	1905 1906 1907 1908	Pounds. 102, 400, 000, 000 105, 800, 000, 000 100, 300, 000, 000 102, 900, 000, 000 127, 700, 000, 000	1910 1911 1912 1913 1914	97, 300, 000, 000 100, 700, 000, 000

TABLE 71.—Rice: Acreage, production, value, and condition, in the United States, 1904-1917.

		Average		Average farm		Conc	lition of	growing	crop.
Year.	Acreage.	yield per acre.	Production.	price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.	July 1.	Aug. 1.	Sept. 1.	When har- vested.
	Acres.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Cents.	Dollars.	Per ct.	Per ct.	Per ct.	Per ct.
1904	662,000	31.9	21,096,000	65. 8	13, 892, 000	88. 2	90. 2	89.7	87.3
1905	482,000	28.2	13,607,000	95. 2	12, 956, 000	88.0	92. 9	92. 2	89.3
1906	<i>5</i> 75,000	31.1	17, 855, 000	90.3	16, 121, 000	82. 9	83. 1	86.8	87.2
1907	627,000	29.9	18, 738, 000	85.8	16,081,000	88.7	88.6	87.0	88.7
1908	655,000	33. 4	21,890,000	81. 2	17,771,000	92. 9	94.1	93. 5	87.7
1909	720,000	33.8	24, 368, 000			l			
1909	610,000	<i>35</i> .8	21,839,000	79.6	17, 383, 000	90.7	84.5	84.7	81.2
1910	723,000	83.9	24, 510, 000	67.8	16, 624, 000	86.3	87.6	88.8	88.1
1911	696,000	32.9	22, 934, 000	79.7	18, 274, 000	87.7	88.3	87. 2	85.4
1912	723,000	84.7	25,054,000	93.5	23, 423, 000	86.3	86.3	88-8	89.2
1913	827,000	81.1	25, 744, 000	85.8	22, 090, 000	88.4	88.7	88.0	80.3
1914	694,000	84.1	23, 649, 000	92.4	21,849,000	86. 5	87.6	88.9	88.0
1915		86.1	28, 947, 000	90.6	28, 212, 000	90.5	90.0	82. 3	80.1
1916	869,000	47.0	40, 861, 000	88.9	86,311,000	92.7	92. 2	91.2	91.
1917	964,000	37.6	36, 278, 000	189.4	68, 717, 000	85.1	85.0	78.4	79.1

TABLE 72.—Rice: Acreage, production, and farm value, by States, 1917.

State.	Acreage.	Average yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	Average farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
North Carolina	Acres. 300 3,000 900 800 400	Bushels. 26. 0 25. 0 30. 0 26. 0 45. 0	Bushcls. 8,000 75,000 27,000 21,000 18,000	Dollars 1. 95 1. 95 1. 95 1. 95 1. 95 1. 95	Dollars. 16,000 146,000 53,000 41,000 34,000
Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Texas Arkansas California United States.	2, 100 500, 000 230, 000 146, 200 80, 000	27. 0 30. 0 36. 5 27. 0 41. 0 70. 0	12,000 63,000 18,250,000 6,210,000 5,994,000 5,600,000	1.90 1.90 1.90 2.00 1.90 1.75	23,000 120,000 34,675,000 12,420,000 11,389,000 9,800,000

RICE-Continued.

TABLE 73.—Rice: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			Yield per acre (bushels).													F	arm		e per nts).		hel	Value per acre (dollars).1			
State.	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1000	Oner	1909	1910		1911	1912		1913	1914		1915	1916		1917		age, 1906-1917.	1913	1014	1916	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916.	1917
N. C. 8. C. Ga. Fla.	25. 22. 26. 24. 48.	7 24 7 25 7 25	.0	30. 2 25. 6 23. 6 25. 6	21. 22.	01	11.7 26.8	25. 30.	0	90. (32. (26. 128.	02 02 02	4.3 9.3 5.0	14. 20. 25.	02	25. (30. (0	95 100 98 88 130	83 60	75 92 89 70	85 90 88 75 100	85 90 87 75 100	196 196 196 196 190	19. 42 21. 73 24. 33 18. 50	48.76 58.56
La Tex	28. 2 30. 3 34. 4 34. 6 41. 3 52. 5	331 333 344 341	.0	30.0 33.8 34.0) 30. 334.) 33.) 40.	03 43 03	16.0 11.5 14.3 19.0	35. 33. 35. 37.	5 5 5	28.0 29.0 12.0 16.0	30. 32. 33.	02 13 83 84	5.0 4.2 0.5 8.4	28. 46. 45. 50.	0:0	30. (36. 5 27. (41. (0	86 91 94 96 99	60 70 84 86 90 100	70 85 93 92 90 100	75 88 90 90	75 80 90 86 96 78	190 190 190 200 190 175	19. 46 24. 20 31. 51 31. 57 39. 59 50. 57	57.0 69.3 54.0
v. s	35.8	33	. 4	33.8	33.	93	32. 9	34.	73	1.1	34.	1 3	B. 1	47.	03	37.6	3 9	4. 9	85.8			88. 9	189.4	33.01	71.2

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TABLE 74.—Rice: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1917.

	New	York.	Cinci	nnati.	Lake (harles.	New C	rleans.	Hou	ston.
Date.		estic od).	Pri	me.	Rot per 162	igh, pounds.	Hono clea	luras, ned.	Head clear	rice, ned.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cus.	Cts. 51	Cts. 6	Cts. 7	Dolls.	Dolls.	Cts. 2½ 2	Cts. 52 6	Cts. 41/4	Cts. 5
1913. JanJune July-Dec	41	5 51	51	6 <u>1</u>	2.50 2.00	8. 82 3. 76	2 1 1. 15	5 8	4 41	5 <u>4</u>
1914. JanJune July-Dec	41	5 51	5 1	6 1	1.40 2.00	3. 76 4. 55	11 11	6 1	3 1	5 5
1915. JanJune July-Dec	5 41	5 j 5 j	5 1 5	6 <u>1</u>	2. 85 2. 80	4. 61½ 3. 65	2 1	5 5	4	5 5
1916. January February March April May June	5 5 5 5 5	55 55 55 55	55 55 55 55 55 55	53 53 53 53	2. 65 3. 00 2. 85 3. 00 3. 25 3. 75	3. 35 3. 55 3. 80 4. 02 4. 02 4. 25	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	4 4 4 3 3	414 414 414 414 414 414
JanJune	5	51	5}	51	2.65	4. 25	2	51	33	4}
July	5 5 5 5 5 5	555 555 555 555 555	5 1 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55	555555555555555555555555555555555555555	2. 60 2. 65 3. 35 3. 25	3. 38 3. 40 3. 65 3. 60	21 21 21 22 23 23	5± 5 4± 5 5± 5±	31 4 4 4	44444
July-Dec	5	51	5}	51	2. 60	3. 65	21	51	3}	41

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RICE—Continued.

TABLE 74.—Rice: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1917—Continued.

	New	York.	Cinci	nnati.	Lake C	harles.	New C	rleans.	Hou	ston.
Pete.		estic od).	Pri	me.		igh, pounds.		luras, ned.	Head clear	rice, ned.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1917. Jenuary. February March April May. June	Cls. 51 51 51 51 81 81	Cts. 555 555 555 99 99	Cts. 51 55 55 77 8	Cts. 53 54 6 8 81	Dolls. 2. 70 3. 00 3. 20 3. 60 4. 10	Dolls. 3. 40 3. 75 4. 25 6. 21 7. 00	Cts. 21 21 21 21 31 41	Cts. 51 55 55 55 85 85	Cts. 43 44 45 5 77 77	Cts. 5 5 5 8 8 8
JanJune	5 1	9	51	81	2.70	7. 00	21	81	43	8
July	8 73 73 73 73 83 83	87 81 9 9	888888	81 82 83 84 84	5. 50 5. 50 5. 50 5. 93 5. 65 5. 34	6. 00 6. 68 6. 50 7. 50 7. 38 7. 20	44 44 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	8778888888	71 7 7 7	71 71 71 8 81 81
July-Dec	73	91	8	83	5.34	7. 50	41	81	7	δŁ

TABLE 75.—Rice: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[Mostly cleaned rice. Under rice is included paddy, unhulled, rough, cleaned, polished, broken, and cargo rice, in addition to rice flour and meal. Rice bran is not included. Rough rice or paddy, where specifically reported, has been reduced to terms of cleaned rice at ratio of 182 pounds rough or unhulled to 100 pounds cleaned. "Rice, other than whole or cleaned rice," in the returns of United Kingdom is not considered paddy, since the chief sources of supply indicate that it is practically all hulled rice. Cargo rice, a mixture of hulled and unhulled, is included without being reduced to terms of cleaned. Broken rice and rice flour and meal are taken without being reduced to terms of whole cleaned rice. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

EXPORTS. [000 omitted.]

Country.	Average, 1909–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	Country,	Average, 1909–1913	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)
FROM— Belgium British India Dutch East Indies France Frence Indo-China. Germany. Netherlands	Pounds. 99,948 5,337,516 132,400 79,087 2,288,040 396,628 476,276	79,844 113,098 2,977,728	41,875	PEOM— Penang	758, 875 866, 030		

IMPORTS.

INTO-				INTO			i
Austria-Hungary	183, 411			Netherlands	778,682		144, 25
Belgium	180, 830, .			Penang	511,035		
Brazil	24, 753	15,317		Perak	179, 187	186, 268	
British India	278, 272	391,607		Philippine Islands.	412,781	481,576	418, 512
Ceylon	821,654			Russia	250, 461		
China	704, 992	1, 130, 141	1,504,536	Selangor	159, 178	178, 438	
Cuba	262, 207			Singapore			
	1, 178, 111			United Kingdom	768 853	1,305,701	
Egypt		54, 809		United States	209, 814		
France	517, 861	576, 325		Other countries	1, 242, 092		
Germany	913, 772		00.,020	o the countries	1, 212, 002	101,001	
Japan	655, 676	94, 158	63,613	Total	11 430 050	6,904,889	
Mauritius	132, 543	12, 897		10001	11, 200, 500	U, 2011, 009	

¹ Java and Madura only.

STATISTICS OF CROPS OTHER THAN GRAIN CROPS.

POTATOES.

TABLE 76.—Potatoes: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

		Area.			Production,	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA. United States	Acres. 3,711,000	Acres. 3,734,000	Acres. 3,565,000	Bushels, 409, 921, 000	Bushels, 359, 721, 000	Bushels, 286, 953, 000
Canada: Prince Edward Island. Nova Scotia. New Brunswick. Quebec Ontario. Manitoba. Saskatchewan. Alberta. British Columbia.	32,000 32,000 44,000 115,000 151,000 27,000 31,000 26,000 15,000	31,000 34,000 40,000 117,000 155,000 28,000 30,000 27,000 16,000	31,000 34,000 39,000 112,000 133,000 32,000 47,000 29,000 15,000	6,806,000 7,165,000 10,534,000 21,811,000 25,772,000 4,085,000 3,652,000 2,675,000	3,558,000 4,759,000 5,772,000 17,510,000 14,362,000 3,104,000 4,428,000 5,155,000 3,956,000	6, 386,000 6, 935,000 7, 488,000 14, 672,000 8, 113,000 4, 709,000 7, 319,000 4, 783,000 2, 892,000
Total Canada	476,000	479,000	473,000	85, 672, 000	62,604,000	63, 297, 000
Mexico Newfoundland	(i)	{;}	{i}	1 924,000 1 1,524,000	{ }	{i}
Total				498,041,000		
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina	293,000 81,000	806,000 78,000	822,000 79,000	28,366,000 9,169,000	29, 597, 600 9, 546, 000	31,138,000 11,598,000
Total				37, 535, 000	39, 143, 000	42,738,000
Austria-Hungary: Austria-Hungary proper	\$1,774,000 1,513,000 \$194,000 \$67,000	1,757,000 1,577,000 (1) (1)	(S)	4 285,070,000 195,266,000 5 21,140,000 5 2,998,000	4 232, 203, 000 209, 356, 000 (1) (1)	(1) (1) (1)
Total Austria-Hun- gary	3, 548, 000			504, 474, 000		
Belgium Bulcaria Denmark Finland France Germany Italy Luxemburg Malta Notherlands Norway Roumania 1008	411,000 28,000 1151,000 6191,000 8,367,000 727,000 (1) 4,000 424,000 104,000 26,000 56,000	(1) (1) (165,000 (1) (1) (2) (2) (1) (2) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1	(1) (1) (1) 159,000 (1) 3,222,000 (1) 729,000 (1) (1) 413,000 114,000 35,000 (1)	\$ 117, 613, 000 \$ 503, 000 37, 331, 000 18, 736, 000 440, 652, 000 1, 674, 377, 000 61, 104, 000 5, 283, 000 120, 780, 000 120, 780, 000 27, 542, 01 2, 654, 01 1, 083, 060	(1) 42, 349,000 (1) 332, 788,000 1, 983, 161,000 56, 768,000 (1) 568,000 126, 741,000 3, 765,000 865,000	(1) 28, 629, 000 335, 507, 000 882, 000, 000 54, 277, 000 (1) (1) 88, 490, 000 29, 189, 000 (1)
Russia, European: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	8,652,000 (1) 204,000	6,815,000 (¹) 165,000	5,879,000 (¹)	891, 579, 000 17, 907, 000	770, 709, 000 (1) 15, 796, 000	662. 169,000 (1)
Total European Russia, evoluding Poland	8,856,000	6,980,000		909, 486, 000	786, 505, 000	
Serbia. Spain Sweden. Switzerland	* 31,000 688,000 375,000 137,000	(1) (1) 382,000 159,000	(1) (1) 373,000 200,000	\$ 2,173,000 76,657,000 63,209,000 22,046,000	*(1) (1) 78,806,000 38,672,000	{\} 54,972,000 18,000,000

No official statistics.
 l'ata for 1906.
 l'ata for 1912.



<sup>Galicia and Bukowina not included.
Data for 1913.
Data for 1910.</sup>

⁷ Grown alone.
8 Grown with corn.

Table 76.—Potatoes: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916—Con.

		Area.	-] 1	Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
EUROPE.—continued.						
United Kingdom: England Scotland Wales. Ireland	Acres. 436,000 152,000 25,000 583,000	Acres. 437,000 144,000 26,000 594,000	Acres. 400,000 130,000 28,000 586,000	Bushels, 104,804,000 40,230,000 5,445,000 128,642,000	Bushels. 100,881,090 36,291,000 5,821,098 138,509,980	Bushels. 88, 484,000 19, 825,000 5, 018,000 90, 845,000
Total United Kingdom	1, 196, 000	1,201,000	1,144,000	279, 121, 000	281, 502, 090	204, 172, 000
Total				4,365,909,000		
Japan	205,000	225,000	231,000	32,312,000	35, 103, 009	39, 006, 000
Russia, Asiatic: Central Asia (4 governments of). Siberia (4 governments of) Transcauçasia (1 government of)	104,000 441,000 2,000	106,000 296,000 2,000	(1)	7, 560, 000 47, 075, 000 90, 000	7, 974, 000 24, 307, 090 100, 000	
Total Asiatic Russia	547,000	404,000		54, 725, 000	32, 381, 660	
Total				87, 037, 000	67, 484, 000	
AFRICA. Algeria	2 48, 000 8 62, 000	(1)	(1)	22,119,000 33,685,000	83	(3)
Total				5,804,000		
AUSTRALASIA.						
Australia: Queensland New South Wales Victoria. South Australia. Western Australia Tasmania	10,000 39,000 75,000 11,000 5,000 31,000	8,000 30,000 65,000 8,000 5,000 32,000	6,000 20,000 57,000 4,000 5,000 29,000	618,000 3,999,000 6,593,000 1,230,000 665,000 3,001,000	598, 000 1,520, 000 7,064,000 673,000 550,000 2,946,600	278,000 1,658,000 6,489,000 485,000 527,000 2,983,000
Total Australia	171,000	148,000	121,000	16,096,000	13, 351, 000	12,421,000
New Zealand	29,000	22,000	30,000	5,869,000	4,952,800	4,899,000
Total Australasia	200,000	170,000	151,000	21,965,000	18, 303, 000	17, 230, 000
Grand total				5,016,291,000		

¹ No official statistics.

Table 77.—Potatoes: Total production of countries mentioned in Table 76, 1900-1914.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1901 1902	Bushels. 4, 382, 031, 000 4, 669, 958, 000 4, 674, 000, 000 4, 409, 793, 000	1905 1906	5, 254, 598, 000 4, 789, 112, 000	1909 1910	Bushels, 5, 295, 043, 000 5, 595, 567, 000 5, 242, 278, 000 4, 842, 109, 000	1913 1914	5, 802, 910, 000 5, 016, 291, 000

Table 78.—Potatoes: Average yield, per acre, of undermentioned countries in 1900-1916.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean).1	Ger- many.1	Austria.1	Hungary proper.1	France.1	United King- dom.1
A verare:	Bushels,	Bushels.	Bushels,	Bushels,	Bushels,	Bushels,	Buskels,
1900-1909	91.4	99. 9	200.0	151.1	118.7	133. 8	193. 8
1910-1915	97.6	107. 9	205.7	145.6	122.2	116. 3	222. 8
1906. 1907. 1908. 1909. 1910. 1911. 1912. 1913. 1914.	102. 2	94.9	193. 3	158. 4	128. 7	99. 5	192. 2
	95. 4	102.4	205. 3	173. 2	126. 6	136. 2	171. 0
	85. 7	102.9	209. 2	154. 0	96. 6	163. 7	231. 1
	106. 8	111.5	208. 9	157. 3	125. 2	160. 3	222. 1
	93. 8	121.1	196. 1	160. 0	117. 4	81. 9	209. 1
	80. 9	104.2	153. 9	137. 2	106. 3	121. 8	241. 5
	113. 4	121.5	223. 5	149. 0	129. 2	142. 9	177. 0
	90. 4	110.6	235. 8	134. 7	118. 4	127. 3	242. 0
	110. 5	102.8	200. 1	160. 7	129. 0	119. 9	233. 3
1915	96. 3 80. 4 95. 4	2 87. 1	224.7	132.1	132.8	103.9 104.1	234.1 178.5 214.0

¹ Bushels of 60 pounds.

² Data for 1913.

^{*} Census of 1911.

² Poland not included.

TABLE 79.—Potatoes: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

		Aver-		Aver-			ago ca hel, fair			Domestic	
Year.	Acreage.	age yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per bushel	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		owing	exports, fiscal year be- ginning	fiscal year be- ginning
		acre.		Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	July 1.	July 1.
1849 1869	Acres.	Bush.	Bushels. 65,798,000 111,149,000	Cis.	Dollars.	Cto.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels. 155, 595 380, 372	Bushels.
1866 1867 1868 1869	1,069,000 1,192,000 1,132,000 1,222,000	100. 2 82. 0 93. 8 109. 5	107, 201, 000 97, 783, 000 106, 090, 000 133, 886, 000 143, 557, 000	47.3 65.9 59.3 42.9	50, 723, 000 64, 462, 000 62, 919, 000 57, 481, 000					512, 380 878, 605 508, 249 596, 968	198, 265 209, 555 138, 470 75, 336
1870 1871 1872 1873	1,325,000 1,221,000 1,331,000 1,295,000 ,310,000	86. 6 98. 7 85. 3 81. 9 80. 9	114,775,000 120,462,000 113,516,000 106,089,000 105,981,000	65. 0 53. 9 53. 5 65. 2 61. 5	74,621,000 64,905,000 60,692,000 69,154,000 65,223,000					553, 070 621, 537 515, 306 497, 413 609, 642	458, 758 96, 254 846, 840 549, 073 188, 757
1875 1876 1877 1878 1879	1, 792, 000	110.5 71.7 94.9 69.9 98.9	166, 877, 000 124, 827, 000 170, 092, 000 124, 127, 000 181, 626, 000 169, 459, 000	34.4 61.9 43.7 58.7 43.6	57, 358, 000 77, 320, 000 74, 272, 000 72, 924, 000 79, 154, 000					704, 379 529, 650 744, 409 625, 342 696, 080	92, 148 3, 205, 556 528, 584 2, 624, 149 721, 868
1890 1881 1882 1883	1,843,000 2,042,000 2,172,000 2,289,000 2,221,000	91.0 53.5 78.7 90.9 85.8	167, 660, 000 109, 145, 000 170, 973, 000 208, 164, 000 190, 642, 000	48.3 91.0 55.7 42.2 39.6	81, 062, 000 99, 291, 000 95, 305, 000 87, 849, 000 75, 524, 000					638, 840 408, 286 439, 443 554, 613 380, 868	2, 170, 373 8, 789, 86 2, 362, 363 425, 403 658, 633
1885 1886 1887 1888 1889	2,266,000 2,287,000 2,357,000 2,533,000 2,648,000	77. 2 73. 5 56. 9 79. 9 77. 4	175,029,000 168,051,000 134,103,000 202,365,000 204,881,000 \$17,546,000	44.7 46.7 68.2 40.2 35.4	78, 153, 000 78, 442, 000 91, 507, 000 81, 414, 000 72, 611, 000	44 70 30 33	47 83 37 45	33 65 65 24 30	50 90 85 45 60	494, 948 434, 864 403, 880 471, 955 406, 618	1,937,410 1,432,49 8,259,53 883,38 3,415,57
1890 1891 1892 1893 1894	2,652,000 2,715,000 2,548,000 2,605,000 2,738,000 2,955,000	55, 9 93, 7 61, 5 70, 3 62, 4 100, 6	148, 290, 000 254, 424, 000 156, 655, 000 183, 034, 000 170, 787, 000 297, 237, 000	75.8 35.8 66.1 59.4 53.6 26.6	112, 342, 000 91, 013, 000 103, 568, 000 108, 662, 000 91, 527, 000 78, 985, 000	82 30 60 51 43 18	93 40 72 60 58 24	95 30 70 64 40 10	110 50 98 88 70 23	841, 189 557, 022 845, 720 803, 111 572, 957 680, 049	5,401,913 186,873 4,317,02 3,002,573 1,341,533 175,24
1896 1897 1898 1899	2,767,000 2,535,000 2,558,000 2,581,000 2,939,000	91.1 64.7 75.2 88.6 93.0	252, 235, 000 164, 016, 000 192, 306, 000 228, 783, 000 273, 518, 000	28.6 54.7 41.4 39.0	72, 182, 000 89, 643, 000 79, 575, 000 89, 329, 000	18 50 30 35	26 62 36 46	19 60 33 27	26 87 52 39	926, 646 605, 187 579, 833 809, 472	246, 173 1, 171, 373 530, 424 155, 86
1900 1901 1902 1903	2,611,000 2,864,000 2,966,000 2,917,000	80.8 65.5 96.0 84.7 110.4	210, 927, 000 187, 598, 000 284, 633, 000 247, 128, 000 332, 830, 000	43.1 76.7 47.1 61.4 45.3	90, 811, 000 143, 979, 000 134, 111, 000 151, 638, 000 150, 673, 000	40 75 42 60 32	48 82 48 66 38	35 58 42 95 20	60 100 60 116 25	741, 483 528, 494 843, 075 484, 042 1, 163, 270	371, 91; 7, 656, 16; 358, 50; 3, 161, 58; 186, 19;
1905 1906 1907 1908	2,997,000 3,013,000 3,128,000 3,257,000 3,525,000	87. 0 102. 2 95. 4 85. 7 106. 8	260, 741, 000 308, 038, 000 298, 262, 000 278, 985, 000 376, 537, 000 389, 195, 000	61.7 51.1 61.8 70.6	160, 821, 000 157, 547, 000 184, 184, 000 197, 039, 000	55 40 46 60	66 43 58 77	48 55 50 70	73 75 80 150	1,000,326 1,530,461 1,203,894 763,651	1, 948, 16 176, 91 403, 95 8, 383, 96
1910 2 1910 2 1911 1912 1913 1914	3,669,000 3,720,000 3,619,000 3,711,000 3,668,000 3,711,000	93.8 80.9 113.4 90.4 110.5 96.3	349, 032, 000 292, 737, 000 420, 647, 000 331, 525, 000 409, 921, 000	54.1 55.7 79.9 50.5 68.7 48.7 61.7	210, 662, 000 194, 566, 000 233, 778, 000 212, 550, 000 227, 903, 000 199, 460, 000	20 30 70 40 50 30 53	58 48 100 65 70 66 95	35 90 33 60 34 80	75 200 70 90 150 110	999, 476 2, 383, 887 1, 237, 276 2, 028, 261 1, 794, 073 3, 135, 474 4, 017, 760	353, 200 218, 98- 13, 734, 69- 337, 239 3, 645, 99- 270, 94- 209, 53-
1915 1916 1917	3,565,000	80. 5 100. 8	359, 721, 000 286, 953, 000 442, 536, 000	146. 1 122. 9	221, 992, 000 419, 333, 000 543, 865, 000	125 93	190 135	200	375	4, 017, 760 2, 489, 001	3,079,02

¹ Burbank to 1910.

29190°--- TBK 1917------ 42

² Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 80.—Potatoes: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1917.

[009 omitted.]

State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec 1.
Maine	Acres. 150	Bushels. 20, 250	Dollars. 26, 325	North Dakota	Acres.	Bushels. 3,870	Dollars. 5,081
New Hampshire	21	2, 247	3, 752	South Dakota	80	7, 200	7,992
Vermont	30	3,000	4,200	Nebraska		12, 495	13, 370
Massachusetts	38	4,370	7,648	Kansas		4.446	6,758
Rhode Island	5	675	1, 181	Kentucky	70	6,720	9,406
Connecticut	29	3, 190	5, 232	Tennessee	52	4, 888	6, 159
New York	400	38,000	49, 400	Alabama	41	2,952	5, 371
New Jersey	98	11, 172	15, 753	Mississippi	14	1,092	1.835
Pennsylvania	321	29, 532	39, 868	Louisiana	25	1,600	2,944
Delaware	13	1, 235	1,606	Texas	46	2,760	5,796
Maryland	60	6,000	7, 140	Oklahoma	36	2, 484	4, 471
Virginia	200	19, 800	24, 750	Arkansas		2,400	3,768
West Virginia	65	7, 475	9, 867	Montana	57	5, 415	5, 523
North Carolina	50	4,500	6, 435	Wyoming	30	4, 650	4, 836
South Carolina	15	1,440	3, 024	Colorado	70	9,310	8, 477
Georgia	19	1,596	3, 112	New Mexico	11	1, 276	2,105
Florida	25	2, 275	4,664	Arizona	4	420	630
Ohio	160	16,000	22, 880	Utah		4, 347	3, 391
Indiana	92	8, 464	11, 765	Nevada	15.	3, 105	3,726
Illinois	150	13, 500	20, 520	1			
	_			Idaho	39	6,084	4,806
Michigan	378	35, 910	37, 706	Washington	79	9, 875	9,065
Wisconsin	307	34, 998	31,498	Oregon	75	8, 100	6, 490
Minnesota	300	33, 600	30, 576	California	105	15, 225	22, 538
Iowa	138	13, 110	17, 174				
Missouri	109	9, 483	12, 992	United States	4,390	442, 536	543, 865

TABLE 81.—Potatocs: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1896-1917.

Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.		P. ct.	P. ct.	P. d.	P.d.
896	99.0	94.8	83. 2	81.7	1907	90. 2	88.5	80.2	77.0
897	87. 8	77. 9	66. 7	61.6	1908	89.6	82.9	73.7	68.7
1898	95. 5	83.9	77.7	72.5	1909	93.0	85, 8	80.9	78.8
899	93. 8	93.0	86.3	81. 7	1910	86. 3	75. 8	70.5	71.8
900	91.3	88. 2	80.0	74. 4	1911	76.0	62.3	59.8	62.3
901	87. 4	62. 3	52. 2	54.0	1912	88.9	87. 8	87. 2	85.1
902	92. 9	94. 8	89.1	82.5	1913	86. 2	78.0	69.9	67.7
903	88. 1	87. 2	84.3	74.6	1914	83.6	79. ŏ	75.8	78.7
904	93. 9	94.1	91.6	89.5	1915	91. 2	92.0	82.7	74.2
905	91. 2	87. 2	80.9	74. 3	1916	87. 8	80.8	67.4	62.6
906	91. 5	89.0	85.3	82. 2	1917	90.1	87. 9	82.7	79.0

Table 82.—Potatoes: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

State.	Yield per acre (bushels).									Farm price per bushel (cents).					eı	Value per acre (dollars).1			
ļ.	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1908	1906	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year aver- age, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year aver- age, 1912-1916.	1917
Me N. H Vt Mass R. I	205 125 122 115 125	225 100 73 95 150	225 130 155 125 125	220 150 130 125 136	180 125 105 93 110	198 140 140 130 113	220 122 127 105 130	260 159 168 155 165	179 95 108 120 110	204 120 112 91 74	135 107 100 115 135	100	53 83 72 85 90	33 60 47 71 70	70 95 81 94 92	142 166 139 175 185	167 140 175	114. 30 98. 11 113. 77	175. 50 178. 69 140. 00 201. 25 236. 25
Comn N. Y N. J Pa Del	105 93 102 83 89	80 82 72 72 82	120 120 90 78 96	125 102 105 88 103	85 74 73 56 60	107 106 108 109 100	92 74 95 88 87	140 145 108 105 80	95 62 130 72 95	95 70 122 70 90	110 95 114 92 95	82 92 84	87 80 82 80 75	65 44 61 58 70	96 82 75 75 75	175 158 155 148 125	130 141	69. 18 100. 33 70. 21	180. 40 123. 50 160. 74 124. 20 123. 50
Md Va W. Va N. C S. C	87 92 89 78 82	77 88 84 79 81	80 92 98 74 85	95 98 92 89 90	45 45 45 48 70	112 87 112 85 90	87 94 83 80 80	78 65 54 52 70	97 125 117 90 80	95 130 88 95 75	100 99 115 90 96	84 91 94	67 80 90 82 130	60 77 81 92 125	62 61 65 73 115	133 137 158 140 175	119 125 132 143 210	87. 23 80. 59 75. 35	119.00 123.75 151.80 128.70 201.60
Ga Fia Ohio Ind	74 85 82 77 75	78 83 77 57 71	81 95 93 95 91	82 90 82 84 75	72 90 65 58 50	78 93 112 114 101	81 76 64 53 46	60 80 95 80 60	65 80 82 95 110	60 74 45 44 58	84 91 100 92 90	84	105 117 85 84 89	105 113 53 56 61	99 115 70 56 59	175 200 182 177 179	195 205 143 139 152	104.32 60.68 55.48	163. 80 186. 55 143. 00 127. 88 136. 80
Mich Wis Minn Iowa Mo	90 99 100 80 69	72 80 76 80 80	105 102 115 89 85	105 95 61 72 86	94 116 115 74 27	105 120 135 109 84		121 124 114 86 45	59 87 106 105 98	48 47 60 42 60	95 114 112 95 87	60 58	53 54 52 82 93	30 30 32 59 73	56 45 39 54 60	160 147 130 175 180	105 90 91 131 137	49.02 50.16 54.09	99. 75 102. 60 101. 92 124. 45 119. 19
N. Dak 8. Dak Nebr Kans Ky	90 83 74 63 79	85 90 78 80 62	110 80 78 79 92	41 44 60 57 92	120 72 52 22 39	128 105 80 82 101	85 78 48 40 49	109 90 80 62 45	90 115 105 83 126	93 66 73 71 84	43 90 85 57 96	77 99	56 63 78 91 102	42 47 54 77 84	41 35 42 74 55	115 137 150 165 142	130- 111 107 152 140	51. 98 55. 01 64. 51	99.90
Tenn Ala Miss La Tex	74 81 83 67 58	80 85 91 82 71	75 80 87 75 50	80 80 85 55 51	41 78 83 69 57	88 81 89 73 63	64 84 80 70 52	43 79 80 70 61	88 80 90 51 65	82 90 65 65 50	94 72 78 64 60	109 110	97 105 100 96 112	95 97	63 90 84 95 105	149 169 160 167 190	126 182 168 184 210	93.00 83.14 70.54	118.44 131.04 131.04 117.76 126.00
Okla Ark Mont Wyo Colo	62 73 141 128 116	78 82 138 158 125	70 70 180 160 160	100	18 55 150 42 35	60 70 165 140 95	60 72 140 140 115	70 60 140 108 120	85 90 155 150 135	53 65 125 130 138	69 80 95 155 133	109 72 84	105 100 67 65 65	90 97 64 70 50	\$4 76 50 60 55	195 190 120 128 135	102	77.30 95.38 101.40	124. 20 125. 60 96. 90 161. 20 121. 03
N. Mex Ariz Utah Nev	90 101 162 165	100 110 160 120	85 90 180 180	142	80 95 140 160	100 125 185 178	68 75 180 160	100 110 140 130	100 95 125 172	102 115 180 190	116 105 189 2 07	134	140 135 58 68	60	95 100 63 70	175 180 130 130	150 78	138.30 118.36	191. 40 157. 50 147. 42 248. 40
Idaho Wash Oreg Cai	159 142 125 130		200 170 160 130	130	130 135	185 167 155 130		138	115 130	141	156 125 108 145	65 64 90	50 60 58 70	60 70	56 53 60 75	127 98 90 140		87.51 77 71 111.86	123. 24 115. 00 86. 40 217, 50 123. 89

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

Table 83.—Potatoes: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.	United States.		Atla	rth intic tes.	Sot Atla Sta	ntic	N. Ce States of Mis	s east	N. Ce States of Mis	west	Son Cen Sta	tral		West- tates.
i	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
January	Cts. 147. 3 172. 4 240. 7 234. 7 279. 6 274. 0	Cts. 70. 6 88. 0 94. 4 97. 6 94. 8	188. 3 270. 3	106. 4 109. 2 113. 6 109. 8	219. 0 237. 0 264. 8	88. 4 94. 1 100. 2 102. 6	187. 4 247. 2 239. 6 300. 5	88. 7 90. 5 87. 7	165. 3 226. 7 235. 7 276. 4	73. 4 82. 4 85. 1 81. 1	191. 2 269. 3 282. 5 808. 7	100. 5 119. 6 121. 9 112. 3	139. 6 204. 1 201. 8 239. 6	76. 1 87. 8 90. 4 91. 1
July	247. 9 170. 8 139. 1 122. 1 127. 8 122. 9	95. 4 109. 3 112. 0 135. 7	176. 4 144. 0	101. 5 106. 8 110. 7 146. 5	162. 4 132. 4 120. 8 131. 4	85. 3 91. 9 93. 8 127. 4	153.3 112.8 107.3 118.3	96. 0 128. 1 132. 3 149. 0	169. 1 125. 1 117. 7	83. 0 105. 0 112. 0 130. 9	176. 8 172. 6 156. 8 157. 4	88. 3 105. 6 126. 4	181. 1 159. 0 124. 7 106. 0	116. 9 104. 0 85. 8 102. 0

TABLE 84.—Potatoes: Wholesale price, 1912-1917.

	New	York.	Chic	ago.	Minne	apolis.	St. I	.ouis.	Cinci	nnati.	Der	ıver.		Fran- co.
Date.	weste	e and rn, per ounds.	fancy	r to , per hel.	Per b	rushel.		bank,1 ushel.	Per b	ushel.		100 nds.	River	oank, rs, per sunds.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec			\$0.50 .32	\$2.00 1.15			\$0.90 .35	\$1.52 1.20	\$0. 88 . 50	\$1.50 1.15				
1913. JanJune July-Dec	\$1.70 1.75	\$2.87 2.37	. 15 . 50	.70 .82	\$ 0. 33	\$0.60 1.00	.30 .45	.87 .93	.30 .65	1.00 1.00	\$0. 50 . 60	\$4.00 2.50	30. 20 . 50	\$1.65 1.26
1914. JanJune July-Dec	2.00 1.25	5.00 2.12	. 56 . 28	1.75 1.65	. 55 . 28	1. 35 1. 50	. 65 . 33	1.60 1.50	. 65 . 45	1. 15 1. 70	1.00 .90	2. 50 2. 75	.80 .60	1.65 1.30
1915. JanJune July-Dec	1.00 1.75	1.75 3.00	. 18 . 17	1. 50 . 95	. 30 . 25	. 65 1. 00	.38 .22	. 55 . 96	.30 .30	.50 .90	. 90 . 85	2. 25 2. 25	1.00 .85	3.50 1.50
1916. January February March April May June	2. 85 3. 00 3. 30 3. 00 3. 00 3. 00	3. 85 3. 60 3. 75 3. 85 3. 90 3. 90	.80 .80 .80 .60 .80	1. 30 1. 30 1. 05 1. 00 1. 10 1. 30	.75 .87 .77 .62 .75 .85	1. 35 1. 25 1. 20 1. 10 1. 25 1. 20	. 94 . 88 . 73 . 78 . 92 1. 03	1. 13 1. 03 1. 09 1. 06 1. 28 1. 35	. 65 1. 05 1. 00 . 85 . 85 1. 15	1. 18 1. 10 1. 12 1. 12 1. 30 1. 30	1. 40 1. 50 1. 50 1. 50 1. 65 1. 65	2. 15 2. 15 2. 00 2. 00 5. 00 3. 25	.90 1.00 1.00 1.25 1.00 1.35	1.60 1.60 1.75 1.75 1.60 2.25
JanJune.	2. 85	3. 90	. 60	1.30	. 62	1. 35	. 73	1.35	. 65	1.30	1.40	5.00	. 90	2. 25
July	3. 40 4. 50 4. 25	5. 25	.65 .65 .95 1.00 1.35 1.25	1. 05 1. 90 2. 00 1. 90 1. 85 1. 90	.75 .99 1.05 1.00 1.50 1.40	1. 10 1. 05 1. 50 1. 50 1. 75 1. 70	.50 .55 .90 1.10 1.53 1.38	.83 2.00 2.10 1.73 1.80 1.86	.80 .80 .90 1.25 1.50 1.66	1. 25 1. 15 1. 30 1. 70 1. 75 1. 90	1. 65 1. 65 1. 75 1. 75 2. 50 2. 25	3. 25 8. 00 2. 50 8. 00 8. 00 3. 00	1. 30 1. 15 1. 00 1. 25 1. 85 1. 96	1.90 2.25 2.00 2.50 2.40 2.27
July-Dec	3. 40	5. 25	. 65	2.00	.75	1.75	. 50	2.10	.80	1.90	1.65	3. 25	1.00	2.50

^{1 1917} quotations refer to various kinds, for San Francisco.

TABLE 84.—Potatoes: Wholesale price, 1912-1917—Continued.

•	New	York.	Chie	ago.	Minne	apolis	St. I	ouis.	Cinci	nnati.	Dea	iver.		Fran- co.
Date.	wester	e and n, per ounds.	fancy	bushel.		ushel.		bank, ushel.	Per b	ushel.	Per 100 pounds.		Burbank, Rivers, per 100pounds.	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1917. January February March April May June	8. 25	7. 00 10. 50 9. 00 10. 25 11. 00 11. 00	1.60 1.90 2.00 2.25 2.00 1.00	2. 25 8. 05 2. 85 4. 50 8. 75 8. 70	1.50 1.80 2.10 2.15 2.35 2.40	2, 25 2, 80 3, 05 8, 10 2, 90 4, 20	1.70 1.98 2.13 2.23 2.25 3.00	2. 18 2. 93 2. 70 3. 28 8. 35 8. 33	1.85 2.15 2.45 2.45 2.50 2.40	2.20 3.00 3.00 3.35 3.25 3.90	2. 25 3. 00 3. 50 3. 50 5. 00 4. 15	3. 50 5. 25 5. 25 5. 75 6. 50 6. 25	2.00 2.75 2.75 2.90 2.50 1.90	8.00 4.10 4.00 5.00 4.50 4.00
JanJune.	4.75	11.00	1.00	4. 50	1.50	4. 20	1.70	8. 35	1.85	3.90	2. 25	6, 50	1.90	5.00
July	3. 00 4. 00 8. 45 3. 50 8. 00	4. 75 5. 75 4. 75 4. 73 5. 75	1.00 .90 .90 1.00 .98 .93	2.85 1.65 1.40 1.60 1.50 1.35	1.00 1.10 .90 .90 1.17 .99	2. 75 1. 80 1. 40 1. 45 1. 50 1. 29	1. 05 1. 14 . 90 . 87	1. 50 1. 70 1. 50 1. 44 1. 70	1.50 1.25 1.10 1.10 2.25 2.15	2.50 1.70 1.30 1.60 2.75 2.75	3.00 2.25 2.00 2.00 2.25 2.00	4. 25 4. 00 2. 75 2. 75 2. 75 2. 75 4. 25	1. 75 2. 00 1. 75 1. 75 1. 75 1. 25	2.50 2.75 2.35 2.35 2.10 1.96

TABLE 85.—Potatoes: International trade, calendar years 1911-1916.

GENERAL NOTE.—Substantially the international trade of the world. It should not be expected that the world export and import totals for any year will agree. Among sources of disagreement are these (1) Different periods of time covered in the "year" of the various countries; (2) imports received in year subsequent to year of export; (3) want of uniformity in classification of goods among countries; (4) different practices and varying degrees of failure in recording countries of origin and ultimate destination; (5) different practices of recording reexported goods; (6) opposite methods of treating free ports; (7) clerical errors, which, it may be assumed, are not infrequent.

The exports given are domestic exports, and the imports given are imports for consumption as far as it is feasible and consistent so to express the facts. While there are some inevitable omissions, on the other hand there are some duplications because of reshipments that do not appear as such in official reports. For the United Kingdom, import figures refer to imports for consumption, when available, otherwise total imports, less exports, of "foreign and colonial merchandise." Figures for the United States include Alaska, Porto Rico, and Hawaii.

EXPORTS. [000 omitted.]

Country.	A ver- age, 1911- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)	Country.	A ver- age, 1911- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)
From— Argentina Austria-Hungary Belgium Canada China Denmark France Germany Italy Japan	Bush. 543 1,451 8,602 1,207 255 928 8,683 12,412 3,975 440	Bush. 224 885 375 3,865	Bush. 1,014 1,558 334 1,819 2,066 454	From— Netherlands. Portugal. Russia. Spain. United Kingdom. United States Other countries. Total.	Bush. 16,451 500 7,762 1,835 6,246 1,814 1,924 75,151	Bush. 8,819 90 319 2,101 1,231 3,900 1,395	Bush. 6, 238 45 1, 956 1, 346 3, 230

IMPORTS.

Into— Algeria Argentina Austria-Hungary Belgium Brazil Canada Cuba Egypt Finland France Germany Netherlands	1, 218 1, 337 1, 533 4, 070 4, 921 939 525 525 348 2, 001 2, 751 569 479 412 2, 180 29, 180 1, 952 79	235 167 573 353 109 2 577	Norway. Philippine Islands. Portugal Russia Sweden. Switzerland United Kingdom. United States. Other countries	215 334 273 309 700 8,172 11,382 5,707 2,311 78,767 itized by	1,117 4,011 1,774 16,087	488 306 2 2,857 3,331 886
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SWEET POTATOES.

Table 86.—Sweet potatoes: Acreage, production, and value, in the United States, 1849-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

Year.	Acreage.	A verage yield per acre.	Production.	Average farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
	Acres.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Cents.	Dollars.
1849			38, 268, 000		
869			48,095,000		- · • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
1869					-
1879			\$3,579,000 43,950,000		-
1889		- -	43, 800,000		
1899	537,000	79.1	42,517,000	16.7	19,870,000
1900		88.9	48, 346, 000	50.6	24, 478, 000
1901	547,000	81.7	44, 697, 000	57.5	25, 720, 900
1902	532,000	85. 2	45, 344, 000	58.1	28, 35%, 000
1903	548,000	89.2	48, 870, 000	58. 3	28, 478, 000
1904	548,000	88.9	48, 705, 000	60.4	29, 424, 600
1905		92.6	51,034,000	58.3	29, 734, 000
1906.	554,000	90. 2	49, 948, 000	62.2	31,063,000
1907		88. 2	49, 813, 000	70.0	34,858,000
1908	599,000	92, 4	55, 352, 000	66.1	36, 564, 000
1909	641,000	92.4	59, 232, 000	89.4	41,052,000
1910	641,000	93.5	59, 938, 000	67.1	40, 216, 000
1911	605,000	90.1	51, 538, 000	75. 5	41, 202, 000
1912	583,000	95. 2	55, 479, 000	72.6	40, 264, 000
1913	625,000	94.5	59, 057, 000	72.6	42, 884, 000
1914	603,000	93.8	56, 574, 000	73.0	41, 294, 000
1915	731,000	103.5	75, 639, 000	62.1	46,980 000
1916		91.7	70, 955, 000	84.8	60, 141, 000
1917	953,000	91.4	87, 141, 000	110.3	96, 121, 000

TABLE 87.—Sweet potatoes: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1917.
[000 omitted.]

State.	Acreage.	Produc-	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
New Jersey	Acres. 24 1 5 10 40 2 90 80 125 35	Bushels. 2,880 110 580 1,180 4,180 280 8,550 7,600 11,625	Dollars. 4,608 154 672 1,180 4,576 392 8,978 7,904 12,206	Missouri. Kansas. Kentucky. Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana. Texas. Oklahoma	Acres. 8 4 12 30 178 85 62 84 15	Bushels. 896 368 1,140 2,850 16,020 5,525 4,898 6,552 1,350	Dollars. 1, 263 1, 263 5,89 1, 425 2, 992 14, 738 5, 359 5, 094 9, 173 2, 160
Ohio	1 3 8 3	3,500 95 318 776 270	4, 025 166 525 1, 164 567	Arkansas New Mexico California United States	2 6 953	4,400 236 1,002 87,141	4,224 484 1,503 96,121

SWEET POTATOES—Continued.

Table 88.—Sweet potatoes: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1897-1917.

Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
1897 1898 1899 1900 1901 1902	P. ct. 86. 5 85. 1 93. 7 93. 1 83. 6 90. 2	P. ct. 86. 4 92. 0 84. 1 92. 2 80. 7 78. 3 88. 7	P. ct. 85. 4 90. 6 80. 7 83. 6 78. 7 77. 2 91. 1	P. ct. 89. 9 74. 9 80. 0 79. 0 79. 7 83. 7	1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	P. ct. 87. 3 90. 6 90. 9, 85. 9 89. 8 89. 7	88. 5 90. 1	P. ct. 89. 9 89. 5 88. 7 85. 7 88. 7 81. 3 83. 9	P. ct. 86. 1 88. 6 86. 0 82. 7 85. 5 77. 8	1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	78.4 86.9 86.5 77.1 88.7 90.4	P. ct. 77. 7 85. 0 85. 8 75. 5 85. 5 85. 9	P. ct. 79. 1 84. 1 81. 4 81. 8 87. 5 82. 7 85. 7	P. ct. 78. 1 82. 0 80. 1 80. 7 85. 0 79. 2

TABLE 89.—Sweet potatoes: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			7	Yield	per	acre	(bus	shels).			F	arm	pric (ce	e per nts).	busi	hel	Val a (dol	cre	
State.	10-year average, 1908-1917.	1908.	1909.	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.	10-year average, 1908-1917.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.	5-year average, 1912-1916.	201	1917.
N. J Pa Del Md Va	126 107 125 122 102	102 125 110	123 88 125 115 100	110	121 140 115	120 120 125	138 110 135 141 108	100 105 120 125 92	105 135 130	100 125 126	110 112 118	72	78 90 60 60 70	95 86 70 70 76	70 75 62 70 6 5	120 135 81 88 90	140 120 100		1 154 1 134 5 1 18	I. 0 I. 4 3. 0
W. Va N. C S. C Ga Fla	107 97 93 86 109	88 86	100 99 95 93 105	105 91 83	86 84 81	90 105 90	91 100 92 87 110	92 90 85 85 120	105 85	107 86 80	95 95 93	65 73 71	100 61 75 68 75	98 65 70 69 80	65 61	81	105 104 105	68. 2 58. 7	7 99 5 98 7 97). 7 3. 8 7. 6
OhioIndIllIowaMo	101 99 94 95 88	80 93	110 101 110 110 90	9×	114 89 105	116 98	90 78 70 80 56	110 100 84 100 84	104 110	100 90 91	97 90	105 104 130	103 106 150	96 90 95 127 96	98 90 82 108 82	125 192	165 150 210	109. 00 103. 4- 89. 90 124. 30 82. 0	174 145 189	1. I 5. I 0. (
Kans Ky Fenn Ala Miss	93 91 92 89 90	84 89 85	88 87 80	101 85 85 85 85 94	75 96 85 97 85	99 90 90 100 97	50 75 80 95 98	105 100 93	105 105 90	90 100 74	95 95 90	87 75 69	110 94 80 67 62	77 69	100 70 59 57 55	100 87 74	125 105 92	104. 3 78. 2 69. 3 60. 2 58. 6	7 118 5 99 8 82	3. 7 3. 7 2. 8
La. Tex. Okla. Ark. N. Mex. Cal	88 79 84 95 137 151		90 50 70 58 180 160	93 56 70 98 100 160	90 71 75 92 150 140	84 75 92 88 141 156	85 80 64 90 125 170	87 101 102 95 143 161	92 98 115 130 160 135	89 74 91 125	79 78 90 110 118 167	81 134	80 130	89 77 113	50 70 73 61 120 80	90 135 90 180	160 96 2 05	55. 0 78. 1 88. 2: 77. 1 177. 8: 144. 9:	1 109 144 1 105 3 241). 2 1. (5. 6 1. 9
U. S	93. 6	92. 4	90. 1	93. 5	90. 1	95. 2	94. 5	93. 8	103. 5	91. 7	91. 4	75. 5	72.6	73. 0	62. 1	84.8	110. 3	69. 63	100). f

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

SWEET POTATOES--Continued.

TABLE 90.—Sweet potatoes: Wholesale price per barrel, 1912-1917.

-		- 1						New '	York.	
Date.	Baltiı	more.	St. L	ouis.	New O	rleans.1	Jers	sey.	Sout	hern.
	Low.	High.	Low.	Hìgh.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	\$2.00 1.00	\$4.50 6.00	\$1.50 .75	\$3.50 5.00	\$1.75 2.00	\$2.00 2.00	\$2.50 1.50	\$3.50 3.50	\$2.00 .50	\$3.00 6.00
1913. JanJune July-Dec	2.00 .75	8.50 7.00	1.63 .88	8.75 6.25	2.00 2.00	2.00 2.00	2.00 1.25	8.00 8.50	1.75 .40	2.50 5.50
1914. JanJune July-Dec	1.00 1.00	2.50 . 5.50	1.50 1.75	2.50 4.50	1.00 .80	3. 20 3. 50	1.50 2.00	2.00 · 3.50	. 75 . 75	1. 5 0 5.60
1915. JanJune July-Dec	1.50 .75	5. 50 6. 50	2.50 1.50	4.50 8.40	1.00 .70	3.00 3.00	2.50 .50	8.00 2.50	2.00 .50	3. 50 5. 00
1916. January February March April May June	1.00 1.50 1.50 1.50 1.75 1.75	2. 25 2. 25 2. 50 2. 75 3. 00 2. 25	1.75 1.85 1.50 1.50 1.50 2.25	2.65 2.25. 2.10 1.75 1.50 2.25	1.00 .50 .80 .80 .70	1.70 1.70 1.50 1.30 1.30	1.75 1.75	2.50 2.50	1.00 1.50 1.50	2.00 2.00 2.00
JanJune	1.00	3.00	1.50	2.65	. 50	1.70	1.75	2.50	1.00	2.00
July	1.75	5.50 4.25 2.35 2.25 3.00 4.00	2.50 2.35 2.25 2.85 2.00	3. 25 2. 80 2. 90 2. 85 3. 00	.80 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00	1.20 2.00 2.50 1.50 1.50 1.70	2.00 2.50	3. 50 3. 25	3. 50 1. 00 1. 25 1. 25 1. 75 2. 00	5.50 5.00 3.50 3.00 3.50 4.25
July-Dec	1. 25	5.50	2.00	8. 25	.80	2.50	2.00	3.25	1.00	5.50
January January Kebruary March April May June	2.75 8.00 4.00 3.50 .4.50 4.50	4.00 5.50 5.50 6.00 6.00 6.00	.75 1.10 1.25 1.50 2.00	1.40 2.00 2.00 2.25 2.75	.65 .75 .65 1.00 2.00	.90 1.25 1.25 2.25 2.25			3.75 2.50	5. 25 5. 00
JanJune	2.75	6.00	. 75	2.75	.65	2.25			2.50	5 25
July	3.00 2.50 2.25 .50	12.00 8.50 4.25 3.50 3.50 6.00	1. 25 .50 .40 .75 1. 10	2.50 1.75 1.35 1.50 2.00	.90	1.60 1.60	4.00 8.25 1.50	5.00 5.00 5.00	1.25 1.25 1.50 .50 1.00	9.00 5 75 5 00 4.00 4 00
July-Dec	. 50	12.00	.40	2.50	. 80	1.60	1.50	5.00	. 50	9.00

¹ Prices as quoted were per half-barrel sack of 80 pounds; barrel prices obtained by doubling same.

HAY.

TABLE 91.—Hay: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates where er new census data are available.

		Aver-		Aver-			o prices ion, by			Domestic
Year.	Acreage.	age yield per	Production,	farm price per ton	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		wing By.	exports, fiscal vear be-
•		асте.		Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	ginning July 1.
849 85 9	Acres.	Tons.1	Tone.\\ 15,859,000 19,084,000	Dolls.		Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolle.	Tons,3
	17,669,000 20,021,000 21,542,000 18,591,000	1.23 1.31 1.21		10.14 10.21	220, 836, 000 268, 301, 000 263, 589, 000 268, 933, 000					5, 021 5, 641
868 8 69. 869	21,542,000 18,591,000	1.21 1.42	21, 779, 000 26, 277, 000 26, 142, 000 26, 420, 000 27, 516, 000	10.08 10.18	268, 933, 000 268, 933, 000				' 	6,72
870 1871 1872 1873	20,319,000	1.23 1.17 1.17 1.15 1.15	24, 525, 000 22, 239, 000 23, 813, 000 25, 085, 000 25, 134, 000	12.47 14.30 12.94 12.53 11.94	805, 743, 000 817, 940, 000 808, 025, 000 814, 241, 000 800, 222, 000				 	4,58 5,26 4,55 4,88 7,18
1875 1876 1877 1878 1879	23,508,000 25,283,000	1. 19 1. 22 1. 25 1. 47 1. 29 1. 15	27, 874, 000 80, 867, 000 81, 629, 000 39, 608, 000 85, 493, 000 86, 151, 000	10.78 8.97 8.37 7.20 9.32	800, 378, 000 276, 991, 000 264, 880, 000 285, 016, 000 830, 804, 000		10.50 8.50 14.50	9.00 9.75 9.00 14.00	l	7,52 7,28
1880 1881 1882 1883	25, 864, 000 30, 889, 000 32, 340, 000	1.23 1.14 1.18 1.32 1.26	81,925,000 85,135,000 38,138,000 46,864,000 48,470,000	11.65 11.82 9.73 8.19 8.17	371, 811, 000 415, 131, 000 371, 170, 000 383, 834, 000 396, 139, 000	15.00 16.00 11.50 9.00 10.00	15.50 16.50 12.25 10.00 11.50	17.00 15.00 12.00 12.50 15.50	19.00 16.50 13.00 17.00 17.50	12,66 10.57 13,30 16,90 11,14
1885 1886 1887 1888 1880	39,850,000 36,502,000 37,665,000 38,592,000 52,949,000	1. 12 1. 15 1. 10 1. 21 1. 26 1. 26	44,732,000 41,796,000 41,454,000 46,643,000 66,831,000 68,851,000	8.71 8.46 9.97 8.76 7.04	389,753,000 353,438,000 413,440,000 408,500,000 470,394,000	11.00 9.50 13.50 11.00 9.00	12.00 10.50 14.50 11.50 10.00	10.00 11.00 17.00 10.50 9.00	12.00 12.50 21.00 21.00 14.00	13,39 13,87 18,19 21,92 36,27
1081	1	1.19 1.19 1.18 1.33 1.14	60, 198, 000 60, 818, 000 59, 824, 000 65, 766, 000 54, 874, 000	7.87 8.12 8.20 8.68 8.54	473, 570, 000 494, 114, 000 490, 428, 000 570, 883, 000 468, 578, 000	9.00 12.50 11.00 10.00 10.00	10.50 15.00 11.50 10.50 11.00	12.50 13.50 12.00 10.00 10.00	15.50 14.00 13.50 10.50 10.25	28,086 85,20 33,08 54,444 47,11
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899	44, 208, 000 43, 260, 000 42, 427, 000 42, 781, 000 41, 328, 000 43, 127, 000	1.06 1.37 1.43 1.55 1.37 1.26	47,079,000 59,282,000 60,665,000 66,377,000 56,656,000 63,828,000	8.35 6.55 6.62 6.00 7.27	393, 186, 000 388, 146, 000 401, 391, 000 398, 061, 000 411, 926, 000	12.00 8.00 8.00 8.00 10.50	12.50 8.50 8.50 8.25 11.50	11.50 8.50 9.50 9.50 10.50	12.00 9.00 10.50 10.50 12.50	59, 05; 61, 65; 81, 82; 64, 916 72, 716
1900 1901 1902 1903	39, 133, 000 39, 391, 000 39, 825, 000 39, 934, 000 39, 999, 000	1.28 1.28 1.50 1.54 1.52	50, 111, 000 50, 591, 000 59, 858, 000 61, 306, 000 60, 696, 000	8.89 10.01 9.06 9.07 8.72	445, 539, 000 506, 192, 000 542, 036, 000 556, 276, 000 529, 108, 000	11.50 13.00 12.00 10.00 10.50	14.00 13.50 12.50 12.00 11.50	12.50 12.50 13.50 12.00 11.00	13.50 13.50 15.00 15.00 12.00	89, 364 153, 431 50, 974 60, 736 66, 551
905 1906 1907 1908 1909	39,362,000 42,476,000 44,028,000 45,970,000 45,744,000 51,041,000	1.54 1.35 1.45 1.52 1.42 1.36	60, 532, 000 57, 146, 000 63, 677, 000 70, 050, 000 64, 938, 000 68, 855, 000	8.52 10.37 11.68 9.02	515, 960, 000 592, 540, 000 743, 507, 000 631, 683, 000 722, 385, 000	10.00 15.50 13.00 11.50	12.00 18.00 17.50 12.00	11.50 15.50 13.00 12.00	12.50 20.50 14.00 13.00	70, 172 58, 602 77, 281 64, 641 55, 007
1910 3 1911 1912 1913	51,041,000 51,015,000 48,240,000 49,530,000 48,954,000 49,145,000	1.36 1.14 1.47 1.31 1.43	69,378,000 54,916,000 72,691,000 64,116,000 70,071,000	12.14 14.29 11.79 12.43 11.12	842,252,000 784,926,000 856,695,000 797,077,000 779,068,000	16.00 20.00 13.00 14.50 15.00	19.00 22.00 18.00 18.00 16.00	18.50 24.00 14.00 15.00 16.50	23.50 28.00 16.50 17.50	55, 222 59, 730 60, 720 50, 151 105, 508
1915 1916 1917	51, 108, 000 55, 721, 000 53, 516, 000	1.68 1.64 1.49	85, 920, 000 91, 192, 000 79, 528, 000		913,644,000 1,022,930,000 1,359,491,000	14.50 15.00 26.00	16.50 17.50 28.00	17.50 19.00	20.00 22.00	178, 336 85, 529

^{1 2,000} pounds.

1

1 / 1

Figures adjusted to census basis.

² 2,240 pounds.

HAY-Continued.

TABLE 92.—Hay: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1917.

[000 omitted.]

State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1
Maine New Hampshire	Acres. 1,160 506	Bushels. 1,566 683	Dollars. 17,383 8,196	North Dakota South Dakota	Acres. 550 735	Bushels. 484 1.102	Dollars. 5,566 11.681
Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island	945 460 60	1,531 690 90	17,606 13,731 1,827	Nebraska. Kansas. Kentucky	1,590 1,478 975	2,544 2,217 1,268	38,669 36,902 25,710
Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	350 4,185 350 3,092 78	525 6,110 508 4,329 96	10, 238 92, 261 10, 160 75, 758 2, 009	Tennessee	892 1,448 261 260 450	1,142 1,158 371 416 450	22,041 18,760 5,676 5,949 9,000
Maryland	442 850	552 986 1,003 528 280	10,985 21,002 21,163 10,402 5,768	OklahomaArkansas. Montana Wyoming	575 390 759	920 573 1,063 952 2,376	14, 168 8, 824 19, 772 16, 184 39, 442
Georgia	100 2,925	562 110 4,154 3,004 3,438	11,240 2,002 78,926 56,175 68,760	New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada	202 157 392 234	384 550 1,137 679	8,064 13,640 17,055 10,796
Michigan		3,837 4,595 2,868 3,887	65, 996 79, 494 34, 703 65, 302	Idaho	725 808 840 2,400	2,175 1,778 1,638 4,560	34, 800 35, 500 28, 665 87, 572
Missouri	3,180	3,657	63, 998	United States.	53, 516	79,528	1,359,491

TABLE 93.—Hay: Yield per acre, price per ton Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			Ave	erage	yiel	d pe	racr	e (to	ns).			Fai	rm pr	ice pe	r ton	(dolla	us).	per	ncre lars).
		1917	10-year average, 1908-1917	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916	1017									
Me	1.13 1.37 1.30 1.23	1,11 1,20 1,50	1. 25 1. 15 1. 10	1.20 1.35 1.28 1.18	1.05 1.30 1.08 1.00	1.25 1.50 1.25 1.13	1.00 1.28 1.21 1.17	1.15 1.20 1.32 1.17	1.00 1.35 1.50 1.24	1.45 1.70 1.56 1.35	1.35 1.62 1.50 1.50	16,00 13,73 20,30 20,60	17.20 14.50 21.10 21.20	17.00 14.60 21.50 20.20	17.40 15.50 22.00 22.50	14.50 12.60 19.00 20.00	12.00 11.50 19.90 20.30	18, 78 19, 88 28, 69 25, 68	16, 20 18, 63 29, 85 30, 45
Conn N. Y N. J Pa Del	1, 25 1, 40 1, 35 1, 30	1.20 1.60 1.50 1.60	1.05 1.25 1.20 1.40	1.32 1.50 1.38 1.43	1.02 1.05 1.00 .88	1. 25 1. 44 1. 43 1. 33	1.14 1.30 1.32 1.30	1.20 1.35 1.28 1.10	1.30 1.45 1.40 1.20	1.60 1.60 1.45	1.46 1.45 1.40 1.26	14.56 18.58 15.35 16.59	15.30 19.00 14.90 15.70	19.50 14.60 19.50 14.50 17.00	15.70 19.00 15.60 17.00	11.90 17.60 13.80 15.90	15, 10 20, 00 17, 50 20, 50	18,65 27,11 20,89 20,50	22. 05 29. 00 24. 50 25. 83
Md	1.15 1.24 1.35	1.30 1.45 1.50	1.30 1.25 1.38	1.50	.64 .66 1.05	1.20 1.38 1.30	1.27 1.25 1.31	.72 .92 L.15	1.35 1.50 1.85	1.35 1.54 1.30	1.16 1.27 1.20	16.04 15.70 16.35	15.50 14.90 16.50	15.30 17.20 17.20 17.10 17.00	15.70 15.00 16.50	15.00 14.50 17.50	21.30 21.10 19.70	18, 35 19, 99 23, 23	24.71 26.80 23.64
Ind	1.29 1.36 1.28	1.35 1.53 1.50	1.38 1.43 1.40	1.33 1.39 1.30	1.30 .98 .94	1.25 1.36 1.37	1.35 1.30 1.00	1.35 1.13 1.00	1.20 1.44 1.50	1.25 1.57 1.44	1.10 1.42 1.40	16, 90 13, 25 12, 82	18.20 12.80 14.10	16.20 17.20 13.40 14.10 14.40	16.00 12.70 11.00	16.00 10.60 10.90	18.20 19.00 18.70	21.92 16.88 15.20	20, 02 26, 98 26, 18

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

HAY-Continued.

Table 93.—Hay: Yield per acre, price per ton Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States—Continued.

			Ave	rage	yiel	d pe	r acı	e (to	ons).			Far	m pr	ice per	r ton	(dolla	rs).	per	lue acre lars).
State.	10-year average 1908-1917	1908	1909	1910	1101	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year average 1908-1917	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average 1912-1916	1917
Wis	1.56 1.57 1.41	1.70 1.68 1.70	1.53 1.75 1.64	1.00 1.00 1.05	1.20 1.00 .80	1.60 1.53 1.40	1.62 1.50 1.48	1.75 1.89 1.38	1.75 1.91 1.80	1.70 1.85 1.60	1.70 1.55 1.23	11.96 7.70 9.86	11.10 6.60 9.60	6.10	9.90 6.40 8.70	7.00 9.00	17.30 12.10 16.80	18.13 11.28 14.30	29.4 18.7 20.6
N. Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans	1.41 1.56 1.42	1.50 1.55 1.50	1.50 1.50 1.45	.80 1.00 1.15	. 55 . 85 . 85	1.46 1.35 1.50	1.20 1.34 .90	1.70 1.69 1.51	2.00 2.60 2.30	1.90 2.10 1.55	1.50 1.60 1.50	6.44 8.16 8.67	6.50 8.70 12.50	5.70 6.90 7.40	5.30 5.80 5.60	5.40 7.10 7.60	10.60 15.20 16.60	9.45 12.93 11.70	15.9 24.3 24.9
Tenn Ala Miss I.a Tex	1.32 1.44 1.60	1.60 1.50 1.40	1.50 1.47 1.50	1.43 1.42 1.75	1.40 1.50 1.30	1.25 1.48 1.65	1.36 1.33 1.50	1.31 1.45 1.90	1.45 1.40 1.75	1.10 1.40 1.70	1,42 1,60	13.62 12.10 11.80	14.20 13.50 12.50	13.80 12.00 12.00	12.40 11.00 10.30	13.00 11.00 11.00	16.20 15.30 14.30	17.58 16.99 19.85	12.9 21.7 22.8
Ark Mont Wyo	1.30 1.85 2.07	1.50 2.00 2.00	1.25 1.79 2.40	1.35 1.40 2.40	1.15 2.00 2.10	1.23 1.90 1.90	1.20 1.80 1.90	1.05 2.50 2.30	1.60 2.00 2.20	1.25 1.70 1.80	1.47 1.40 1.70	12.12 10.46 9.87	13.50 9.60 6.70	8.70	10.30 7.50 7.80	12.50 11.00 12.00	15.40 18.60 17.00	15.32 17.70 17.02	22.6 26.0 28.9
N. Mex Ariz Utah Nev	3.36	$\frac{3.20}{2.50}$	$\frac{3.30}{2.90}$	$\frac{2.10}{3.00}$	$\frac{3.86}{2.50}$	$\frac{3.40}{2.78}$	$\frac{4.00}{2.33}$	$\frac{3.20}{2.75}$	$\frac{3.20}{2.50}$	3.80	3.50 2.90	13.07 9.72	9.10	8.80	9.60	$14.50 \\ 15.00$	24.80 15.00	39.76 23.52	86.8
Idaho Wash Oreg Cal	2.24	2.25	2.10	$\frac{2.10}{2.10}$	$\frac{2.40}{2.10}$	2.20 2.20	$\frac{2.30}{2.10}$	$\frac{2.20}{2.00}$	$\frac{2.30}{2.20}$	$\frac{2.40}{2.30}$	2.20 1.95	12.93 10.71	9.00	9.20	9.50	13.80 10.90	20.00 17.50	25.89 20.31	44.0 34.1
U.S	1.45	1.52	1.42	1.36	1.14	1.47	1.31	1.43	1.68	1.64	1.49	12.04	12.43	11,12	10.63	11.22	17.09	17.13	25.4

Table 94.—Hay: Farm price per ton on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.		ited tes.	Atla	rth intic ites.	Atla	nth intio tes.	State	entral s east ss. R.	State	entral s west ss. R.	Cer	uth itral ites.		West- tates.
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
January February March April May	10. 86 11. 34 11. 54 12. 53 13. 94	10. 94 11. 40 11. 62 11. 78 12. 22	13. 21 13. 50 13. 20 13. 20 13. 31	16. 26 16. 64 16. 48 17. 19 17. 91	15. 45 15. 56 15. 99 16. 35 17. 55	15. 86 16. 66 16. 25 16. 54 16. 87	10. 92 11. 50 11. 62 11. 96 13. 08	11. 82 11. 91 12. 20 12. 70	7. 72 8. 19 8. 33 9. 39 10. 76	7. 17 7. 63 7. 42 7. 51 7. 76	12. 63 13. 18 13. 59 14. 26	10. 74 11. 15 11. 36 11. 61 11. 89	12. 99 13. 62 14. 39 17. 23	9. 93 10. 47
July	12. 90 13. 26 13. 83 15. 16	10. 68 10. 42 10. 36 10. 68	12. 85 13. 08 13. 06 14. 53	15. 43 13. 66 13. 47 13. 33	17. 52 16. 87 16. 80 17. 91	15. 03 15. 11 15. 10 15. 04	13. 31 12. 96 14. 00 16. 19	10. 29 10. 47 10. 39 10. 41	10. 68 11. 55 11. 98 13. 31	6. 94 7. 23 7. 08 7. 58	15. 81 15. 07 15. 65 16. 51	11. 60 10. 94 10. 89 10. 85 11. 62 12. 23	14. 75 15. 73 16. 80 17. 14	11. 69 10. 98 10. 69 10. 86 11. 59 12. 25

HAY.—Continued.

TABLE 95.—Hay: Wholesale price (baled) per ton, 1912-1917.

	Chic	ago.	Cinci	nnati.	St. L	ouis.	New	York.	San Fr	ancisco.
Date.	No. 1 ti	mothy.	No. 1 ti	mothy.	No. 1 ti	mothy.	No. 1 th	mothy. 1		wheat, bales.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	\$17.50 13.00	\$28.00 22.00	\$21. 50 15. 50	\$31.00 27.00	\$19.50 18.00	\$31.00 24.50	\$25.00 21.50	\$32.00 29.00		
1913. JanJune July-Dec	13. 00 13. 50	18. 50 19. 50	14.00 15.25	19.00 21.00	12.00 13.50	18.50 24.00	19. 50 20. 00	23.00 22.00		
1914. JanJune	13. 50 13. 00	17. 50 18. 50	17.50 17.50	21.00 21.50	15.00 14.50	23.00 22.50	19.50 18.50	23.00 25.00	\$13.00 { 27.50	\$21.00 } 14.00
1915. JanJune July-Dec		18.00 21.00	18.00 13.00	22.00 23.00	16.00 12.00	22.00 24.00	25.00 31.50	11.00 13.00	14.00 18.00	
1916. January February March April May June	14.50 15.00 17.50	17.00 16.50 18.50 20.00 20.00 19.00	18.00 19.00 19.50 20.00 21.00 18.00	21.00 21.00 20.50 22.00 24.00 22.00	15.00 15.00 15.00 14.00 16.50 15.00	20.00 19.00 20.00 20.50 21.00 20.00	24.00 25.00 26.00 26.00 26.50 27.00	26.00 26.00 28.00 28.00 30.00 31.00	16.00 16.00 17.00 17.00 17.00 14.50	18.00 19.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00
JanJune		20.00	18.00	24.00	14.00	21.00	24.00	31.00	14.50	19.00
July	9. 50 12. 50 14. 50 13. 00	18.00 18.00 18.00 17.00 17.00 17.50	18.00 15.00 16.00 14.25 15.00 15.50	18. 50 18. 00 16. 50 16. 50 16. 50 16. 50	11.00 11.50 13.00 14.00 14.50 15.50	19. 50 18. 00 17. 25 17. 00 17. 50 18. 50	24.00 24.00 20.00 18.00 18.50 19.00	28.00 25.00 26.00 20.00 23.00 22.00	14. 50 15. 00 16. 00 17. 50 17. 50 18. 00	16. 50 17. 00 18. 50 18. 50 19. 00 20. 00
July-Dec	9. 50	18.00	14. 25	18. 50	11.00	19. 50	18.00	28.00	14. 50	20.00
1917. January	15.00 15.00 16.00	16.00 16.50 16.50 21.50 22.00 20.00	15.00 15.00 15.50 17.00 18.00 17.00	17.00 16.00 18.00 21.50 21.50 19.00	15.00 14.50 15.50 18.00 19.00 17.50	17. 50 17. 50 21. 00 25. 00 23. 00 22. 00	18.00 20.00 20.00 21.00 21.00 22.00	22.00 22.00 23.00 23.00 24.00 28.00	19.00 20.00 22.00 29.00 30.00 20.00	21.00 23.00 28.00 35.00 35.00 31.00
JanJune	15.00	22.00	15.00	21. 50	14. 50	25.00	18.00	24.00	19.00	35. 00
July	17. 50 19. 00 22. 00 26. 00	19.00 24.00 23.00 28.00 28.50 28.50	16.50 18.00 19.00 22.00 27.00 28.50	18. 75 20. 00 23. 00 27. 50 30. 00 30. 00	15.00 15.00 21.00 23.00 28.00 29.00	22.00 28.00 25.50 81.00 30.00 82.00	20.00 21.00 23.00 23.00 26.00 28.00	22, 50 24, 00 25, 00 25, 00 34, 00 32, 00	19.00 22.00 21.00 25.00 27.00 29.00	24. 00 24. 00 25. 00 28. 00 34. 00 30. 00
July-Dec	16. 50	28. 50	16. 50	30.00	15.00	32.00	20.00	34.00	19.00	34.00

¹ Per hundred pounds, 1900, 1901 and 1907.

² New hay.

CLOVER AND TIMOTHY SEED.

TABLE 96.—Clover and timothy seed: Wholesale price, 1912-1917.

		Clo	ver (l	bushe	ls of 60	pound	is).					Tin	othy.	•		
		cin- ti.	Chic	eago.	Tok	edo.			Cine		Chic	ago.	Milv ke	₩811- 10.	St. I	∠oui s.
Date.	Pri	me.		or to me.		or to sice.	B		Pour bus (of pour	hel 45	cho (per	r to pice 100 ads).		100 nds.	pri (pe	or to ime r 100 nds).
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	मुद्रीम	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	<i>Dols.</i> 10.00 9.00	Dols. 13. 00 11. 00	Dols. 5.40 4.80	Dols. 13. 80 10. 80	Dols. 4.00 3.00	Dols. 14. 20 11. 72}	Dols. 12.00 10.25	<i>Dols.</i> 14. 00 12. 50	Dols. 4.00 1.50	Dols. 6.50 5.00	Dols. 11.50 3.80	<i>Dola.</i> 16. 25 12. 00	Dols. 5.00 2.50	Dols. 15.50 10.00	Dols. 2.50 2.75	<i>Dols.</i> 15.50 10.00
1913. JanJune July-Dec	8. 00 5. 00	11.50 9.00	4. 20 4. 20	13. 20 9. 60	3.00 1.60	13. 85 12. 75	11. 15 7. 50	13.40 9.45	1.50 2.50	1.80 5.40	2.50 3.50	5.40 5.90	2.50 3.75	4.60 5.50	2.00 2.25	4.00 5.50
	5.00 5.00		7.00 9.00	15.00 18.50	2.00 2.40	9. 45 11. 40	7.40 8.20	9.40 11.25	1.40 1.40	2. 25 2. 70	3.00 3.50	5.75 7.85			2.00 3.25	5.35 7.00
JanJune July-Dec	6.50 6.50	9. 65 12. 20	7.00 7.00	14.55 20.50	7. 25 7. 40	9.55 13.10	7.85 7.70	9.60 12.55	2.00 1.90	3.60 3.75	4.00 4.50	7.00 8.00	4.50 4.50	7.00 8.00	3 00 3.00	7.00 7.50
1916. January February March April May June	7 75	11.00	10.00	22.00	10.65	13.70	11.85 12.00 10.75 8.75 8.75 8.85	12.10 13.25 12.75 10.75 8.85 9.00	2.30 2.30 2.00 1.85 1.80	3.30 3.30 3.20 3.00 2.80 2.80	5 00 4.50 4.00 4.00 4.50 5.00	8.00 8.50 8.00 8.00 8.50 8.50	4.78 4.75 4.00 4.00 4.50 5.00	8.00 8.50 7.75 7.75 8.50 8.50	6.00 5.75 3.75 5.00 4.00 4.00	7. 50 7. 15 6. 50 6. 25 7. 25 7. 50
JanJune.						13.70			1.80							
July	6.50 8.00 7.00 7.00 8.50 8.75	9.00 9.50 9.00 9.25 10.00	7.00 7.00 6.00 8.00 12.00 12.00	14.00 16.00 14.75 17.00 18.00 17.50	8. 72½ 8. 40 8. 80 9. 62½ 10. 45 10. 35	9.35 11.10 10.05 10.85 11.15 10.80	8. 90 8. 60 8. 75 9. 50 10. 60 10. 25	9.30 10.75 9.70 10.60 11.00 10.85	1.50 1.20 1.20 1.20 1.30 1.30	2.80 2.50 1.90 2.00 2.15 2.15	4.00 3.00 3.00 3.00 3.00 3.00	7.50 5.50 5.00 5.50 5.50 5.50 5.75	4.50 4.50 4.35 3.50 3.75 4.00	8.00 5.00 5.25 5.50 5.50 5.75	4.00 3.00 3.25 3.00 3.50 4.00	6.80 5.40 4.65 4.75 4.90 5.05
July-Dec	6.50	10.00	6.00	18.00	8.40	11.15	8.60	11.00	1.20	2.80	3.00	7.50	3.50	8.00	3.00	6.80
January February March April May June	8. 75 9. 00 8. 50 8. 00 8. 40 9. 20	10. 20 11. 00 11. 00 10. 25 10. 60 10. 60	12.00 12.00 12.00 12.00 12.00 12.00	18.35 19.90 19.65 18.25 18.75 18.75	10.62 10.90 10.00 10.50 10.60 10.75	11. 021 11. 971 11. 80 10. 85 11. 25 11. 20	10.65 10.75 10.75 10.60 10.70	11.00 11.80 11.80 10.90 11.10 11.20	1.30 1.60 1.60 1.65 2.50 2.65	2.00 2.00 2.10 2.50 3.35 3.35	3.00 3.00 3.00 3.00 4.00 7.00	5.50 5.50 5.75 8.00 8.40 8.25	4.00 4.65 4.60 4.75 6.75 6.50	5. 75 5. 50 5. 75 7. 75 8. 40 8. 40	4. 15 3. 50 3. 90 4. 15 5. 50 6. 00	5.00 5.00 6.50 7.60
JanJune.	8.00	11.00	12.00	19.90	10.00	11.973	10.60	11.20	1.30	8.35	3.00	8. 40	4.00	8.40	3.50	7.60
July	9. 20 9. 50 10. 25 10. 65 11. 60 12. 00	10.60 11.50 12.85 13.10 14.60 16.00	12.00 14.00 15.00 17.00 18.00 26.00	20.00 21.50 23.00 25.65 28.00 28.00	10. 95 11. 00 12. 75 13. 50 15. 25 15. 00	12.00 13.00 13.60 15.25 16.35 15.00	10.80 11.90 12.75 13.50 15.35 16.00	11.85 12.50 13.50 15.25 16.00 16.50	2.60 2.75 2.50 2.50 2.50 2.50	3.35 3.50 3.30 3.15 3.00 3.00	4.00 4.00 6.00 5.50 5.00	8.50 8.50 8.00 8.50 7.75 7.50	6.75 7.00 6.50 6.50 6.25 6.50	8.00 8.50 8.00 8.50 7.50 7.75	6.00 6.50 7.00 6.75 6.50 6.40	8. 25 8. 00 7. 60 7. 40
July-Dec.	9. 20	16.00	12.00		10.95											8. 25

COTTON.

TABLE 97.—Cotton: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916. [Bales of 478 pounds net.]

		Area.		l	Production.	
Country.						
	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
United States 1	36,832,000	31,412,000	84, 985, 000	16, 135, 000	11, 192, 000	11,450,000
Porto Rico	(2)	l (2)	1 725	1 693	739	€ 379 (m) \$ 379
St. Croix	(2)	(2)	(3)	4 290	(3)	(3)
British						1
Barbados	2,985	(2)	. (*)	598	4 648	4 29
GrenadaJamaica		1 53	(2)	4 749 4 67	4 772 4 88	I 🔀
Leeward Islands		}}	1 33	4 2, 413	(2)	l } <u>₹</u>
St. Lucia. St. Vincent	(1)	(1)	(4)	42,413	47	(2)
St. Vincent	}ģ,006	(2)	(2)	4 884	4 791	(2)
Dominican Republic Haiti	\ \?\	l }}	S ₂ 2	4 771 4 8, 970		1 12
	(3)		(3)	- 0, 510		
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina	5,478	8, 154	9,118	(2) 385,000 4 165	(2) 440,000	. 420,00
Brazil	(2) 5 334	\ \{\sigma\}	(3)	380,000	(1)	(2)
Scuador	(2)	\ \\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	1 >-<		\ \2 5] } s
Peru	(2)	(3)	137, 474	4 105, 617	4 97, 429	4 113, 47
EUROPE.					ł	ľ
Bulgaria	1,730 1,006	(²) 946	(2) (2)	(2) 411	(²) 384	(2)
	1,000	940	(*)	411	384	(*)
ASIA.		İ			•	l
British India	24, 595, 000	17,746,000	21, 212, 000	4,359,000	3, 128, 000	3,576,00
Pritish Indias	(2)	152	(3)	(1) 9,498 5 18,966	(3) 5,619	[[]
Outch East Indies	l 134	\{\bar{\bar{\bar{\bar{\bar{\bar{\ba	\si	18,966	(1)	l } <u>₹</u>
ndo-China	(1)	(2)	(2)	* 18, 966 116	`´4 9 3	₹≤
apanese Empire:						
Japan	5,887 150 738	6,565 (2)	5,384 (2)	4,382	4,840 (³)	4, 21 (1)
Korea. Philippine Islands	5, 887 150, 738 77, 544			4,582 33,322 76,098		
Russia, Asiatie:						
Transcaucasia	364, 460	291,568	231,000	132, 198	132,649	(1)
Central Asia	1,442,757	1,833,185	1,900,349	1,176,477	1, 424, 114	1, 101, 48
Total	1,807,217	2, 124, 753	2, 131, 349	1,308,675	1,556,763	
Biam	(2)	(9)	(3)	6,694	(2)	(1)
	(-)			0,002	()	()
AFRICA.	ŀ		l		l	l
British Africa: Lagos	(3)	(3)	(20)	11.000	5,000	8,00
Nyasaland Protectorates	}}	} <u>s</u> {	%	11,000 7,000	8,000	7,00
East Africa Protectorate	(2)	(2)	(3)	1 400	250	17
Gold Coast	(2)	<i>S</i> ₹	<u>(2</u>)	80 800	. 80	9,00
Nigeria, Northern	1 23 .) <u>}</u>	l	130	1,000 80	8,00
Nigeria, southern Uganda Protectorate Union of South Africa	(2)	(2)	(*)	35,000 4 87	21,000	21,00
Union of South Africa	(2)	(3)	(2)	4 87	243	
Sgypt	1,822,000	1,231,000	1,719,000	1,337,000	989,000 1	1,248,00
Dahomey	(2)	(2)	(2)	4 621	4 315	l
Guinea	(3)		(2)	4 168	(3)	
Ivory Coast	(*)	(*)	(2)	4 339	(2) 4 437	
Jerman Africa: East Africa	(2)	(2)	(T)	5 10, 109		
Togo	(3)	(2)		\$ 10,109 \$ 2,322	(2)	
talian Africa:				l		1
Eritrea	\ \{\bar{2}{2}\}	(3)	(3)	4 378 8,000	20,000	14,00
Budan (Anglo-Egyptian)		(5)	(3)	3,000	20,000	1
OCEANIA. British:	l]	
	(2)	(*)	(2)	24	8	ļ
Fiji		1 3-5	i Zeš	14	13	1
Queensland	<u>}•</u> 5	(2)	1 527			
Queensland)2) (2)	\ ?	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	• 24	(2)	
Queensland	''	(3)	(2)		(²) 4 2, 124	

¹ Linters not included. Quantity of linters produced: 856,900 bales in 1914, 931,141 bales in 1915, and 1,330,714 bales in 1916.

2 No official statistics.
2 Exports to foreign countries plus shipments to the United States.
4 Exports.
5 1913 figures.
6 Includes Rhodesia.

Table 98.—Cotton: Total production of countries for which estimates were available, 1900-1910.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1900	15, 926, 048	1904 1905 19 \)	18, 342, 075 22, 183, 148	1908 1909 1910	Bales.1 23, 688, 299 20, 679, 334 22, 433, 269

¹ Bales of 478 pounds.

Table 99.—Cotton: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1866–1917.

				1917	•					
		Average		Aver- age farm	Farm value	pri	Yor ices, pe ddling	r pour	ıd, oñ	Domestic exports, fiscal
Үеаг.	Acreage.	yield per acre.	Production.	per pound	Dec. 1.	Doce	mber.		of fol- g year.	year be- ginning July 1.
				Dec. 1.		Low:	High.	Low.	High.	
1866	A crcs. 7,599,000 7,828,000	Pounds. 129. 0	Bales. 1,750,000	Cents.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts. 344 174	Cts. 27] 30]	Cts. 281 321	Bales, 1 1, 322, 947
1867 1868	0,799,000	189. 8 192. 2	2,340,000 2,380,000			151	25	284	284	1,569,527 1,288,656 1,917,117
1869 1870	6,799,000 7,743,000 8,885,000	196. 9 198. 9	3,012,000 3,800,000		Donars.	25 15	25) 15	221 147	231 17	1,917,117 2,925,856
1871 1872	7,558,000	148. 2 188. 7	2,553,000			191	201 201	23] 19]	263 194	1,867,075
1873	9 510 000	179. 7	3, 683, 000			15	164	174	187	2,400,127 2,717,205
1874 1875	11,764,000 11,934,000	147. 5 190. 6	5,123,000			1316	147 137	16 1 11 11	16 13	2,520,838 2,982,811
1876 1877	11,677,000	167. 8 163. 8	4,438,000 4,370,000	9.0			121 111 91 1376	1011	117	2,800,738 3,215,067
1878	12, 344, 000	191. 2	5, 244, 000 5, 755, 000	8.3	194, 875, 000	811	94	10 4 114 11 14	13	3, 256, 746
1879 1880	15,951,000	181. 0 184. 5	6,343,000	10.3 9.8	269, 305, 000 289, 083, 000	111 811 121 113	114	107	111 131 111 104	3, 614, 363 4, 382, 009
1881 1882	16,711,000 16,277,000 16,778,000	149. 8 185. 7	5, 456, 000 6, 957, 000 5, 701, 000	9.1	l	117 101	121 1014	121 101	121 11	3,480,792 4,576,378
1883	1 16,778,000 1	164. 8 153. 8	5,701,000 5,682,000	9. 1 9. 2	250, 977, 000	101 101	10 / 11 / 11 / 11 / 12 / 11 / 12 / 12 /	111 1011	11 1 11	4,576,378 3,725,145 3,783,319
1884 1885		164. 4	6,575,000	8.4	251,775,000	91.9	9,7	874	814	4, 116, 149
1886 1887	1 18.641.000	169. 5 182. 7	6,446,000 7,020,000	8. 1 8. 5	251,856,000 290,901,000	9-1- 10-1 9-1	97 10 97 101 27	10 1	11 1/6 10 1/6	4,338,915 4,528,883
1888 1889	19,059,000 20,175,000	180. 4 159. 7	6,941,000 7,473,000	8. 5 8. 5	292, 139, 000 275, 249, 000	94 10	101	9 [11 11 	1114 121	4,770,065 4,943,925
1890	19,512,000	187.0	8,674,000	8.6	813, 360, 000	834	914	87	814	5,814,718
1891 1892	15,911,000	179. 4 209. 2	9,018,000 6,664,000	7. 2 8. 3	247, 633, 000 277, 194, 000	7 1 9	8 1	71 74 74 62	77 77 77	5, 870, 440 4, 424, 230
1893 1894	19, 525, 000	149. 9 195. 3	7, 493, 000 9, 476, 000	7.0 4.6	277, 194, 000 204, 983, 000 212, 335, 000	7 5	8 5 1	71 64	7	5,366,565 7,034,866
1895	20, 185, 000	155. 6	7, 161, 000	7.6	238, 503, 000	8	874	8	8	4, 670, 453
1896 1897	24, 320, 000	184. 9 182. 7	8, 533, 000 10, 898, 000	6.7 6.7	286, 169, 000 296, 816, 000	7 5	711 511	74 6-4	718 618	6, 207, 510 7, 725, 572
1898 189 9.	24, 967, 000 24, 327, 000	220. 6 183. 8	11, 189, 000 9, 345, 000	5.7 - 7.0	315, 449, 000 326, 215, 000	54 74 94	7	64	61 61 91	7, 575, 438 6, 252, 451
1900	24,933,000	194. 4	10, 123, 000	9. 2	463, 310, 000		10	818	91.0	6, 718, 125
1901 1902 1903	26,774,000 27,175,000	170. 0 187. 3	9,510,000 10,631,000	7.0 7.6	334, 088, 000 403, 718, 000	8 84	84 84	9 10.75	9 1 12.15	7,057,949 7,138,284
1903	27, 175, 000 27, 052, 000 31, 215, 000	174. 3 205. 9	9, 851, 000 13, 438, 000	10. 5 9. 0	516, 763, 000 603, 438, 000	11.95 6.85	14.10 9.00	12. 75 7. 85	13.90 8.85	6, 179, 712 8, 678, 644
1904 1905	27,010,000	186. 6	10,575,000	10.8	569,791,000	11.65	12.60	11. 25	12.00	7, 268, 090
1906 1907	32, 049, 000 29, 660, 000	202. 5 179. 1	13, 274, 000 11, 107, 000	9. 6 10. 4	635, 534, 000 575, 226, 000	10. 45 11. 70	12. 20	11. 50 10. 20	12.90 11.50	9, 036, 434 7, 633, 997
1908 1909	32, 444, 000	194. 9 154. 3	13, 242, 000 10, 005, 000	8. 7 13. 9	575, 092, 000	9. 10 14. 65		10. 85 14. 50	11.80 16.05	8, 895, 970 6, 413, 416
1910	32, 403, 000	170.7	11,609,000	14.1	820, 407, 000	14.80	15. 25	15. 35	16. 15	8,067,882
1911	36, 045, 000 34, 283, 000	207. 7 190. 9	15, 693, 000 13, 703, 000	8. 8 11. 9			13. 20	11.80	12. 10	11, 070, 251 9, 124, 591
1913	37,089,000 36,832,000	182. 0 209. 2	14, 156, 000 16, 135, 000	12. 2 6. 8	862, 708, 000 549, 036, 000	12.50 7.25	13. 50 7. 80	12.90 9.50	14.50 10.40	9,521,881 8,807,157
1915	31, 412, 000 34, 985, 000	170. 3	11, 192, 000	11.3	631, 460, 000	11.95	12.75	12.30	13. 35 l	6, 168, 140
1916 1917 (prel.)	34, 985, 000 33, 634, 000	156. 6 155. 7	11, 450, 000 10, 949, 000	19. 6 27. 7	631, 460, 000 1, 122, 295, 000 1, 517, 558, 000	16. 20 29. 85	20. 30 31. 85	19. 60	22. 10	6, 176, 134
		!	1 Dolor of 50	O mound	e gross weight		Digitize	d by	17()(<u> </u>

¹ Bales of 500 pounds, gross weight.

TABLE 100.—Cotton: Acreage harvested, by States, 1908-1917. [Thousands of acres.]

State.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1918	1917 1
Virginia	28 1, 458 2, 545 4, 848 265	25 1, 359 2, 492 4, 674 237	33 1, 478 2, 534 4, 873 257	43 1, 624 2, 800 5, 504 308	47 1, 545 2, 695 5, 335 224	47 1, 576 2, 790 5, 318 188	45 1, 527 2, 861 5, 433 221	34 1, 282 2, 516 4, 825 193	42 1, 451 2, 780 5, 277 191	45 1,453 2,876 5,028 183
Alabama. Mississippi. Louisiana. Texas. Arkansas.	3, 591 3, 395 1, 550 9, 316 2, 296	3, 471 3, 291 930 9, 660 2, 218	3, 560 8, 317 975 10, 060 2, 238	4, 017 3, 340 1, 075 10, 943 2, 363	3,730 2,889 929 11,338 1,991	3, 760 3, 067 1, 244 12, 597 2, 502	4,007 8,054 1,299 11,931 2,480	3, 340 2, 735 990 10, 510 2, 170	3, 225 3, 110 1, 250 11, 400 2, 600	2, 195 2, 801 1, 850 11, 052 2, 645
Tennessee. Missouri Oklahoma California Arizona All other	754 87 2,311	735 79 1,767	765 100 2, 204 9	837 129 3,050 12	783 103 2, 665 9	865 112 8,009 14	915 145 2,847 47	772 96 1, 895 39	887 133 2, 562 52	857 140 2, 838 117 39
United States.	32, 444	.30, 938	32, 403	36, 045	34, 283	37, 089	36, 832	31, 412	34, 985	33, 634

¹ Preliminary estimate.

TABLE 101.—Cotton: Production of lint (excluding linters) in 500-pound gross weight bales, by States, and total value of crop, 1908 to 1917. nde of hales and dollars. As finally reported by IJ & Bureau of the Ca

[1 HOUSANG	or perce	and dy	1015. A	illianty.	reported	by 0. 5	. Duresu	OI LIE	carous. J
tate.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916

State.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917 1
Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida	12 647 1,171 1,931 62	10 601 1,100 1,804 54	15 706 1,164 1,767 59	30 1,076 1,649 2,769 83	24 866 1, 182 1, 777 53	23 792 1,378 2,317 59	25 931 1,534 2,718 81	16 699 1, 134 1, 909 48	27 656 932 1, 821 41	16 570 1, 235 1, 820 40
Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana. Texas. Arkansas.	1,346 1,656 470 3,815 1,033	1, 024 1, 083 253 2, 523 714	1, 194 1, 263 246 3, 049 821	1,716 1,204 385 4,256 939	1, 342 1, 046 376 4, 880 792	1, 495 1, 311 444 3, 945 1, 073	1,751 1,246 449 4,592 1,016	1,021 954 341 3,227 816	533 812 443 3, 726 1, 134	505 895 615 3, 115 895
Tennessee Missouri Oklahoma California Arizona All other	344 62 691	247 45 545	332 60 923 6	450 97 1,022 10	277 56 1,001 8	379 67 840 23	384 82 1, 262 50	303 48 640 29	382 63 823 44	206 51 890 67 24
United States.			11,609	<u>.</u>	·	14, 156	!		11, 450	10, 949
Total value of crop	\$ 588, 810	\$ 688 , 35 0	\$809,710	\$749, 890	\$786, 800	\$885, 350	\$591,130	\$ 627, 940	\$994,060	•••••

TABLE 102.—Cotton: Condition of crop, United States, monthly, 1896-1917. [Prior to 1901 figures of condition relate to first of month following dates indicated.]

P. ct. P	ear.	May June 25. 25.			Aug. 25.	Sept. 25.	Year.	May 25.	June 25.	July 25.	Aug. 25.	Sept. 25.
1904 83.0 88.0 91.6 84.1 75.8 1915 80.0 80.2 75.4 69.2 1905 77.2 77.0 74.9 72.1 71.2 1916 77.5 81.1 72.3 61.2))) 1	97. 2 92. 5 83. 5 86. 0 89. 0 91. 2 85. 7 87. 8 82. 5 75. 8 81. 5 81. 1 95. 1 84. 7 74. 1 84. 7 74. 1 83. 0 88. 0	97 83 89 83 82 81 95 74	2.5 80.1 3.0 86.9 1.2 91.2 7.8 84.0 5.8 76.0 1.1 77.2 1.7 81.9 7.1 79.7 3.0 91.6	64. 2 78. 3 79. 8 68. 5 68. 2 71. 4 64. 0 81. 2 84. 1	60. 7 70. 0 75. 4 62. 4 67. 0 61. 4 58. 3 65. 1 75. 8	1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914	70. 5 79. 7 81. 1 82. 0 87. 8 78. 9 79. 1 74. 3 80. 0	72. 0 81. 2 74. 6 80. 7 88. 2 80. 4 81. 8 79. 6 80. 2	75. 0 83. 0 71. 9 75. 5 89. 1 76. 5 79. 6 76. 4	72. 7 76. 1 63. 7 72. 1 73. 2 74. 8 68. 2 78. 0 69. 2	P. ct. 67. 7 69. 7 58. 5 65. 9 71. 1 69. 6 64. 1 73. 5 60. 8 56. 8

TABLE 103 .- Cotton: Pield per acre, price per pound Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

		Yield per acre (pounds of lint). Farm price per pound (cents).								nd	Vali per a (dolls								
State,	10-year average, 1908-1917.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	19172	10-year average, 1908-1917.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year average, 1912-1916.	1917
Va N. C S. C Ga Fla	240 242 220 192 123	210 211 219 190 112	190 210 210 184 110	216 173	240	267 209 159	240 239 235 208 150	265 290 255 239 175	225 260 215 189 120	310 215 160 165 105	187 205 173	13. 6 13. 7 13. 8	12.8	6.9 6.9	11.2 11.3	19. 4 19. 6	27.7 28.4 28.8	30.70 25.80 23.44	47. 20 51. 80 58. 22 49. 82 53. 02
Ala Miss La Tex Ark	159 176 165 163 188	196		182 120	172 170 186	193 206	190 204 170 150 205	209 195 165 184 196	165 147	79 125 170 157 209	153 218 135	13. 9 13. 3 13. 2	12.7 12.6 11.7 11.5	6.8 6.9 6.8	11.5 11.2 11.1	20. 5 19. 1 19. 4	28.5 26.7 26.7	21. 01 21. 30 20. 0	30. 80 43. 60 58. 21 536. 04
Tenn Mo Okla Cal Ariz	193 271 164 404	218 340 143	158 271 147	207 285 200 335	160	183	210 286 132 500	200 270 212 500	188 240 162 260		175 150	13. 1 12. 8	12. 7 11. 5 11. 4 13. 0	6.5	11.0	19. 0	27. 5 26. 5	29. 79 19. 42	31.40 48.12 39.78 377.00
U.S.	179. 2	194. 9	154. 3	170. 7	207. 7	190. 9	152.0	209. 2	170.8	156. 6	155. 7	13.5	12. 2	6.6	11.3	19. 6	27.7	21.8	45. 1

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TABLE 104.—Cotton: Farm price per pound on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1916 and 1917.

Month.	United	States.	South A	Atlantic tes.	N. Cent west of		South Sta			estern tes.
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
JanuaryFebruaryMarchAprilMay	16. 8 15. 9 18. 0 18. 9 20. 2 24. 7 24. 3 23. 4	Cents. 11.4 11.5 11.1 11.5 11.5 12.2 12.5 12.6 14.6	Cents. 17.1 16.9 16.3 19.2 19.4 21.1 25.6 24.7 23.4	Cents. 11.5 11.5 11.1 11.6 11.6 12.3 12.6 12.8 14.8	Cents. 18. 2 15. 5 16. 5 15. 1 15. 0 19. 3	Cents. 10.7 11.2 9.0 10.6 11.2 11.0	Cents. 17.0 16.7 15.6 17.5 18.6 19.8 24.3 24.1 23.4	Cents. 11.4 11.5 11.1 11.5 11.4 12.2 12.4 12.5 14.6	23. 0 16. 0 25. 0	
October November December	23.3 27.3 27.7	15. 5 18. 0 19. 6	23. 8 28. 2 28. 7	15. 6 18. 4 19. 9	24.8 28.0 27.5	18. 0 19. 0	23. 2 26. 9 27. 2	15. 5 17. 8 19. 5	27.9	20

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³ Preliminary.

60TTON—Continued.

TABLE 105 .- Cotton: Closing price of middling upland per pound, 1912-1917.

D -4-	New	York.	New C	rleans.	Mem	phis.	Galv	eston.	Sava	nnah.	Charl	eston.
Date.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	9. 35 10. 75	12.00 18.40	1011	121 181	9 7 11	124 184	94 16	12½ 13½	84 101	12 124	8 1 11	11 Å 124
1913. JanJune July-Dec	11.70 11.90	13.40 14.50	121 111	13 14	12 11 1	131 131	12 11 1	13 14‡	111 111	12 1 14	114 12	124
1914. JanJune July-Dec	12.30 7.25	14.50 18.25	124 64	13 4 13 4	13 64	134 137	121 6	14 134	123 61	137 137	12) 6)	134
1915. JanJune July-Dec		10.60 12.75	71 8.50	9.68 12.13	7 <u>}</u> 8.62	9. 50 12. 25	7 1 8. 5 0	10.10 12.60	78 84	94 124	7½ 9	94 12
1916. January February March April May June	11.20	12.60 12.15 12.15 12.20 13.35 13.45	11.75 11.13 11.13 11.88 12.00 12.68	12.19 11.62 12.00 11.88 12.94 13.06	12.00 11.38 11.38 12.00 12.12 13.00	12. 38 12. 00 12. 00 12. 00 13. 00 13. 25	12.65 11.45 11.60 12.20 12.40 12.95	12.50 12.10 12.35 12.35 13.30 13.75	12 111 112 112 12 12	12 1 12 12 <u>1</u> 12 <u>1</u> 12 12 1 13	114 11 11 114 114 124	11 11 11 11 11 11
JanJune	11.20	13.45	11.13	13.06	11.38	13. 25	11.45	13.75	111	13	11	124
July	12.90 13.35 15.15 16.60 18.75 16.20	13. 30 16. 40 16. 30 19 30 20. 95 20. 30	13.00 13.13 14.69 16.00 18.13 17.25	18. 13 15. 63 15. 63 18. 75 20. 38 20. 25	13. 12 13. 37 15. 15 16. 00 18. 75 18. 00	18. 25 15. 75 15. 75 18. 75 20. 50 20. 50	13.65 13.75 15.05 16.25 18.60 17.00	13.75 16.00 16.00 18.90 20.85 20.40	13 13 147 161 181 181	18 15 15 15 19 20 20	128 13 143 16 184 194	154 154 155 189 204 204
July-Dec	12.90	20.95	13.00	20.38	13.12	20, 50	13.65	20. 85	13	201	12	20)
January	16.75 14.30 17.00 19.35 19.60 22.65	18.80 17.05 19.30 21.15 22.10 27.40	16. 81 16. 68 16. 50 18. 75 19. 37 21. 44	18. 13 17. 19 18. 75 20. 25 21. 19 26. 25	17.00 17.00 17.00 19.00 19.50 21.50	18.50 17.00 19.00 20.50 21.25 26.06	17. 10 14. 50 16. 90 19. 00 19. 25 22. 00	18.50 17.89 19.00 20.25 21.50 26.5 0	184 185 185 194 204 204	18 18 19 20 20 21 26	171 181 171 19 191 211	181 183 19 201 21 26
JanJune	14.30	27. 40	16. 50	26. 25	17.00	26.00	14.50	26.50	181	261	17}	26
July	24.60 23.10 21.20 25.25 28.75 29.85	27.65 28.00 26.30 29.95 31.25 31.85	24. 25 22. 50 20. 13 24. 18 27. 13 28. 19	26.00 26.50 24.13 27.75 29.13 30.13	25.50 25.00 22.00 24.00 28.50 29.50	26.00 26.50 24.50 28.50 29.75 80.00	25. 10 22. 75 21. 20 24. 40 27. 15 28. 25	26. 55 27. 50 25. 10 27. 75 29. 50 30. 35	25 83 22 83 24 25 88 25 88	261 27 241 28 29. 13 30	24 22 20 23 27 27 29	25 25 24 27 20 20
July-Dec	21.20	31.85	20.13	30. 13	22.00	80.00	21.20	30. 35	20	30	20	30 <u>t</u>

TABLE 106.—Cotton: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[Expressed in bales of 500 pounds gross weight, or 478 pounds net. The figures for cotton refer to ginned and unginned cotton and linters, but not to mill waste, cotton batting, scarto (Egypt and Sudan). Wherever unginned cotton has been separately stated in the original reports it has been reduced to ginned cotton in this statement at the ratio of 3 pounds unginned to 1 pound ginned. See "General note," table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	A ver- age 1909- 1913,	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)	Country.	A ver- age 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)
From— Belgium Brazil. British India. China Egypt. France Germany.	Bales. 159 83 1,966 240 1,442 316 232	Bales. 24 2,103 202 1,430 40	Bales. 5 237 1,122 116	From— Netherlands Persia Peru United States Other countries. Total.	Bales. 145 118 87 9,008 169	Bales. 181 97 9,126 183 13,386	Bales. 2 7,608

IMPORTS.

Into-				Into-			
Austria-Hungary	906			Russia	886	641	57
Belgium	496			Spain	382	660	471
Canada	137 1, 435	197 1.052	205 1,192	Sweden	93 113	580 147	123
FranceGermany	2, 258	1,002	1,192	United Kingdom	4,164	4.820	4,045
Italy	896	1.344	1.170	United States	215	424	402
Japan	1,405	2,015	2,299	Other countries	319	297	
Mexico	23			m-4-3	14 005	10 540	
Netherlands	277	365	177	Total	14,005	12,542	

¹ Year beginning Mar. 21.

COTTONSEED OIL.

TABLE 107.—Cottonseed oil: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	Aver- age 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)	Country.	A ver- age 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)
From— Belgium	Gallons. 1, 086 281 476 335 52	2,303 1,253 160 4,265	Gallons. 1, 972 418 40 26	From— United Kingdom. United States. Other countries. Total	Gallons. 7, 189 38, 968 44 48, 431	Gallons. 7,827 47,016 425 63,249	Gallons. 770 25,095

IMPORTS.

Into-				Into-			
AlgeriaAustralia	364 142 39	320		Mexico Netherlands Norway	3,607 5,352 1,504	19,021 3,539	8,071 8,146
Belgium	2, 251 624 2, 817	377 4,083	181 4,745	Roumania Senegal	1,504 633 422		
EgyptFrance	257 3,289	3,524	2,015	Sweden United Kingdom	336 696 5,899	8,337	2, 935
Germany Italy Malta ¹	6,918 4,600 265	472	145	Other countries	4, 191	5,582 45,578	
Martinique	292	320		5.	(-00	σle

TOBACCO.

Table 108.—Tobacco: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA.	Acres.	A cres.	A cres.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
United States Porto Rico	1,223,500 18,040	1,369,900 16,308	1,413,400 (1)	1,034,679,000 19,285,333	1,062,237,000 2 8,084,914	1, 153, 278, 00
Canada: Ontario	4,750 5,000	4,500 4,500	2,933 2,958	5,000,000 6,000,000	4,050,000 4,950,000	3,000,00 2,943,00
Quebec	9,750	9,000	5,891	11,000,000	9,000,000	5,943,00
Costa Rica	2,734	(1)	2,701		(1)	
Cuba Dominican Republic	83	\ {\}	83	80,770,090	50,077,920 8,050,000	900,00 42,043,00 17,250,00
Guatemala	1.236	63	ስ	1 83	1 (1)	
Jamaica	* 1,144 (1)	83	<u>(1)</u>	42,869,690	<u>}</u>	83
SOUTH AMERICA.		• • •	,,,		•	
Argentina	86,744	37,955	18, 187	(1)	50,734,874	(1)
Brazil	8	1,033	(1)	50,481,096	5 59, 734, 874 3, 260, 824	48,942,74
ChileColombia	ስነ	(1)	1 83	5 5, 818, 989	(1)	13
Uruguay	2,503	`1,181	`1,181	59, 481, 096 6, 282, 228 5, 818, 989 1, 737, 805	(1)	` 883, 82
EUROPE.	3			1	'	
Austria-Hungary: Austria	4,262	a)		6,908,555	0	av.
Hungary	117, 429	63	1 83	105, 489, 669	[]	[13]
Hungary Croatia-Blavonia	117,429 190	Ġ)	ርን	105, 489, 669 106, 703	(!)	(2)
BOSINS-Herzegovins.	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)		(1)
Total						
Belgium	10,309 17,297 7524	? }	(3)	19,702,290 38,069,000	1 83	83
Denmark	7 524	(1)	1 ES	(1)	<u> </u>	l እና
France	38, 135 25, 587	19,560	17,529	53, 291, 796	33,990,082	20, 217, 50
Germany	18,038	22,313 19,768	31,396 17,297	53, 291, 796 50, 191, 866 20, 943, 700	(3)	17,637,00
Italy Netherlands	929	860	1 877	1 (1)	1 20 20	(1)
Roumania Russia:	27,070	32,232	28,880	16,970,129	18,566,921	(1)
Russia proper	95,324	96, 161	(3)	147,744,290	163,982,968	83
Poland Northern Caucasia	31, 254	45,564	1 83	33,978,353 1,444,013 815,702	48,922,335	63
Sweden	(1)	(1)	[[t]	1,444,013	947,978	(1)
Switzerland	` 618	` 618	618	815,702	947,978	1,047,18
ASIA. British India 8	1,038,256	1,105,330	a		(1)	a)
British North Borneo	(1)	7.715		8,621,754	[8.]	। छ
Cevion	12,841	14,484	(f)	(4)	• 8, 118, 321	2,752,00
Dutch East Indies: Java and Madura Sumatra, East Coast	394, 636	(¹)	(t)	6 108, 979, 540	(1)	(1)
Of	(1)	(1)	(t)	46,632,068	(1)	. (1)
Japanese Empire: Japan	88,670	75, 423	72,227	126, 206, 328	108, 415, 099	104, 167, 3
Korea	50,905	(i)	83	98 135 227	(1)	1 (1)
Formosa Philippine Islands	934	(1) 1,768 131,808	146, 574	1,158,931	2,078,244	90, 695, 4
Russia, Asiatic	150, 459 57, 960	131,808 41,059	(1)	1,153,931 108,024,188 42,950,903	2,078,244 84,442,714 30,996,375	(1)
AFRICA.	7 22,788	(1)	(1)	7 21,556,138	(1)	(1)
Tunis	297	314	Ç(7 21,556,138 376,825	(3)	l
Nyasaland Rhodesia	10,499 5,000	\$}	1 83	18.000.000	83	1 83
Union of South Africa	9 19, 865	(3)	ા હ	*8,000,000 *14,961,199	\bar{\psi}	ુ હ
OCEANIA.	, ,		1			
Australia	3,007 * 144	2,873	1,906	2,827,582 81,312	1,890,672	10 1, 302, 0
Piji		(1)	(1)	1 9 01 010	(1)	(1)

No official statistics.
 Exports, fiscal year beginning July 1.
 1913 figures.
 1907 figures.

Exports.

Excludes Galicia and Bukowina.

1912 figures.

Includes cortain native states.

TOBACCO-Continued.

TABLE 109.—Tobacco: Total production of countries for which estimates were available, 1900-1911.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1900	Pounds 2, 201, 193, 000 2, 270, 213, 000 2, 376, 054, 000 2, 401, 268, 000	1904	Pounds. 2, 146, 641, 000 2, 279, 728, 000 2, 270, 298, 000 2, 391, 061, 000	1908	Pounds. 2,382,601,000 2,742,500,000 2,833,729,000 2,566,202,000

¹ Data for 1911 not strictly comparable with earlier years.

TABLE 110.—Tobacco: Acreage, production, value, condition, etc., in the United States, 1849-1917.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

1889	t- per acre. 28. Lbs.	Lbs. 199,755 434,209 262,735	price per pound Dec. 1.	(000 omit-ted).	factured, fiscal year beginning July 1.	tured, fiscal year beginning July 1.	July 1.	Aug.	Sept.	When har- vested.
1849 1869 1869 1879 1889	639 739.7	199,753 434,209		Dolls.	Pounds.	Dounda	P 4	_		
1869 1869 1879 1889	639 739.7	. 434,209	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			Pounus.	F.Ct.	P.a.	P.ct.	P. ct.
1869	639 739.7	282.735					•••••	•••••		••••••
1879			1							
		472,661								
	695 70 2 . l									
1899 1,	101 788.	868,113						• • • • • •		
1900 1.	046 778.0	814,345	6.6	53, 661	315, 787, 782	26, 851, 253	88.5	82.9	77.5	76.1
1901 1,	039 788.0			58, 283	301,007,385		86.5			
	031 797. 3				368, 184, 084	34,016,956				84.1
1903 1,	038 786.3				311,971,831	31, 162, 636		82.9	83.4	
1904	806 819. (660,461	8.1	53, 383	334, 302, 091	33, 288, 378	85.3	83.9	83.7	85.6
1905	776 815.6		8.5	53,519	312, 227, 202	41,125,970	87.4	84.1	85. 1	85.8
	796 857.2		10.0	68, 233	340, 742, 864	40, 898, 807	86.7	87.2	86.2	
	821 850.4			71,411	330, 812, 658	35, 005, 131	81.3			
	875 820.2			74, 130	287, 900, 946	43, 123, 196	86.6	85.8	84.3	84.1
1909 1,	180 804.			********				••••••	::-:	•••••
	8 95 815. S	1 ' '			357, 196, 074	46, 853, 389	89.8	83.4	80.2	81.3
	366 807.7				355, 327, 072	48, 203, 288	85.3	78. 5	77.7	80.2
	013 893.7				379, 845, 320		72.6	68.0	71. 1	80.5
1912 1,	226 785. 8				418, 796, 906			82.8		81.8
	216 784. 3		12.8		449,749,982	61, 174, 751	82.8	78.3	74.5	76.6
- 1	224 845.7	1,034,679	9.8	101,411	348, 346, 091	45, 764, 728	66.0	66. 5	71.4	81.8
1915 1,	370 775.4	1,062,237	9.1	96, 281	443, 293, 156	48,013,335	85. 5	79.7	80.7	81.9
		1, 153, 278			411,598,416	46, 136, 347	87.6			85.6
1917 1,	447 827 . 1	1, 196, 451	24.9	297, 442			86.8	88.1	84.5	87.8

¹ Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 111.—Tobacco: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1917.

State.	Acreage.	Production.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Production.	Farm value Dec. 1.
	Астев.	Pounds.	Dollars.		A cres.	Pounds.	Dollars.
New Hamp	100	167,000	45,000	Objo	103, 200	99,072,000	24,768,000
Vermont	100	165,000	45,000	Indiana	14,800	14,060,000	3,374,000
Mass	8,400	11,833,000	4, 544, 000	Illinois	700	560,000	106,000
Connecticut	21, 100	29,540,000	11,343,000	Wisconsin	48,300	45, 885, 000	8,030,000
New York	2,500	3, 125, 000	688,000	Missouri	3,000	2,820,000	598,000
Pennsylvania	41,500	58, 100, 000	12, 201, 000	Kentucky	474,000	426, 600, 000	96, 838, 000
Maryland	28,600	22,594,000	4,519,000	Tennessee	101,000	81,810,000	13,908,000
Virginia	185,000	129, 500, 000	34,318,000	Alabama	200	146,000	51,000
West Vriginia	11,300	9,040,000	2,712,000	Louisiana	600	210,000	74,000
N. Carolina	325,000	204, 750, 000	64, 496, 000	Texas	200	134,000	70,000
S. Carolina	72,000	51, 120, 000	11,809,000	Arkansas	300	210,000	49,000
Georgia	1,600	1,600,000	912,000				
Florida	3, 100	3, 410, 000	1,944,000	U. S	1,446,600	1, 196, 451, 000	297, 442, 000

TOBACCO-Continued.

TABLE 112.—Tobacco: Yield per acre, price per pound Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

				Yle	ld per	Yield per sore (pounds)	spuno	ċ					E.	a per i	ound	Farm price per pound (cents)	÷	Value per acre (dollars).¹	er acre 13).1
Blake	10-year average 1908- 1917.	1908	1906	1910	1181	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	10-year average 1908- 1917.	1918	1914	1915	1916	1917	5-year arerage 1912- 1916.	1917
New Hampshire. Vermont. Wasschusetts. Connecticut	1,676 1,621 1,580 1,580 1,223	1,800 1,735 1,650 1,680 1,176	1,675 1,675 1,675 1,175	6,1,1,1,000 6,6,1,1,000 6,6,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1	05.5.5. 88.88	85588	25,550 25	665,144 865,148 865,148	665588 86588	35838 36838	55658	12.00 12.00 12.00 12.00 13.00 10.00	25.00 25.00 20.00 20.00 20.00	18.0 17.7 18.6 19.6	21.14.00 0.0500	12.00 12.00 12.00 12.00 12.00 12.00	77.28.88.24 0.04.40	275.62 209.80 323.21 346.45	245.55 827.55 83.58 83.58 83.55 83.55
Pennsylvania Maryland Virginia Weeth Carolina	1, 2,2,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,	1,828 200 815 070 070	288 710 775 875 876	1, 98, 98, 98, 98, 98, 98, 98, 98, 98, 98	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 7	**************************************	2,2 2,5 5,5 5,5 5,5 5,5 5,5 5,5 5,5 5,5	1 3 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	4 8 5 5 5 5 5 5 8 8	1, 8,1,5,0,5,0,5,0,5,0,5,0,5,0,5,0,5,0,5,0,5	1, 6,65,88	55444 7-124-1	7.5 13.9 18.0 18.0	88.5 0.0 11.0 11.5	0€0 00 0040 0040	45456 20000	28882	180.76 74.34 81.46 85.48	28.581 28.582 26.08 26.08 36.08
Bouth Carolina Georgia Triorda Priorda Dirio	914 938 871 861	2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 200	867288 850588	888888	58588	55588	1,000 1,000 1,000 750	88888	88888	2,1,58 2,21,68 8,50,08 8,00,08	58588	128211 7.0184	8.5. 8.5. 1.0. 4.0.	9,2,0,0 20,00 20,00 20,00	- 889 -	4.0000 00000	25534 20000	6.558.9.8 8.888.8 8.888.8	25.02 20.02 20.03 20.03 20.03 20.03
Illinois Wisconsin Wiscouri Kentoicy Tennessee	768 1,138 925 840 766	785 1,130 875 815 800	1, 186 2, 186 3,	2,050 2,050 36,050 36	1,250 880 810 810	58888 88888	05.1. 05.05. 05.05. 05.05.	2,138 82,038 82,038 83,038	38.888 38.888 38.888	5,2,2 5,2 5	88388 88388	00000 77200	11.5 12.0 10.0 8.4	12.0 13.0 14.0 4.7	9.04.0 00088	12.55 10.75 10.75	10.0 17.5 17.0 17.0	125.28 121.25.38 3.25.32 3.35.33 3.35.35 3.35.33 3.35.33 3.35.33 3.35.33 3.35.33 3.35.33 3.35.33 3.35.	152.0 190.2 137,7
Alabama Mindisha Trons: Afranses	88. 7.7. 8.5.7.	2 888	8888	5555	5333	5883	5553	5533	3258	8358	5355	25.88 25.88 17.1	张郑雄说 0004	88888 0000	88.27. 0000.	2888 8	38338	118.70 118.90 130.36 107.08	22.22.55 52.52.53 52.53.53
United States	816.0	820.3	804.3	807.7	888.7	785.5	784.3	845.7	778.4	816.0	827.1	12.1	12.8	8.8	9.1	7.	2.0	71.10	206.61
T				<u></u>	n pess	Based upon farm price Dec. 1.	E pr	Se Dec	-:										

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TOBACCO-Continued.

Table 113.—Tobacco: Acreage, production, and farm value, by types and districts, 1916 and 1917.

Type and district.	(thou	eage sands res).	Yic per (pour	Bore		etion sands inds).	farm per p	c. 1	value	farm (thou- is of ars).1
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
I. CIGAR TYPES.										
New England New York Pennsyivania Ohio—Miami Valley Wisconsin Georgia and Florida	29. 7 2. 5 41. 5 63. 6 48. 3 4. 7	3.7 36.1 60.0 43.9	1,250 1,400 970 950	1,230 1,360 970 1,270	3, 125 58, 100 61, 692 45, 885	49,096 58,200 55,753	22.0 21.0 24.0 17.5	13.0 14.2 12.0 12.5	15, 977 688 12, 201 14, 806 8, 030 2, 856	592 6,972 6,984 6,969
II. CHEWING, SMOKING, SNUFF, AND EXPORT TYPES.										
Burley district	262.0	265. 0	960	970	251, 520	257,050	30.7	15.5	77, 217	39, 84 3
Paducah district	100.0 101.6 50.0		800 890 900	780 890 870	90, 424		15.5	10.0	11,200 14,016 9,000	9,523
trict. Virginia sun-oured district. Virginia dark district. Bright yellow district: Old belt—Virginia and North	118.8 11.0 62.0	12.0	800 800 830	790 690 820	8,800		28.5	14.0	14,066 2,508 8,748	1,159
Carolina New belt—Eastern North Carolina and South Carolina	272.0		600 670	550	182, 240	136, 800 126, 500	29.6	19.2	45, 120 53, 943	24, 288
Maryland and eastern Ohio export Perique-Louisiana All other	32.0 .6 11.3	30.0 .2 11.8	810 350 825	780 450 863	210	23, 400 90 10, 182	20.0 35.0 19.4	15.6 28.0 8.7		25

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TABLE 114.—Tobacco: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1917.

Date.	leaf, sto comm	nnati, ¹ plug, ck, non to red.	- le com	insville, af, mon ine.	leaf (i dark comn	wille, ourley, red), non to ood.	le: com	sville, af, mon ine.	smo comn	mond, sf, kers, ion to ine.	(Mary medi	more, af land), um to red.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cents. 6.00 5.00	Cents. 13.00 14.00	Cents. 8.00 9.00	Cents. 16.00 16.00	Cents. 7.50 7.00	Cents. 12.00 13.00	Centa. 9.50 9.50	Cents. 15.00 15.00	Cents. 6.00 6.00	Cents. 12.00 12.00	Cents. 8.50 8.50	Cents. 13. 00 15. 00
1913. JanJune July-Dec	5. 50 5. 50	13.75 13.75	7.00 8.75	14.00 14.00	7.00 9.00	14.00 16.00	9.00 8.50	14.00 15.00	6.00 7.00	16.00 16.00	8. 50 8. 50	15.00 15.00
1914. JanJune July-Dec	5. 50 5. 50	14.00 13.00	8. 60 7. 50	14.00 14.00	9.00 9.00	16.00 16.00	9. 50 7. 50	16.00 16.00	7.00 7.00	20.00 20.00	8. 50 8. 00	15.00 15.00
1915. JanJune July-Dec	6.00 5.00	13.00 13.00	4.00 5.50	12.50 10.00	8.00 10.00	14.00 15.00	6.00 6.00	13.00 13.00	7.00 7.00	20.00 20.00	8.00 8.00	13.00 14.00
1916. January February March April May June	5.00 5.00 5.00 5.00 5.00 7.50	14.00 14.00 14.00 14.00 16.00 16.00	5.00 5.50 5.00 6.00 7.00	10. 25 10. 50 11. 75 11. 75 14. 00	10.00 10.00 10.00 10.00 11.00 11.00	15.00 15.00 15.00 16.00 16.00 16.00	17.50 4.50 4.50 4.50 4.50 4.50	13.00 13.00 10.00 10.00 12.00 12.00	7.00 7.00 7.00 9.00 9.00 9.00	20.00 20.00 20.00 18.00 18.00 18.00	9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.50	14.00 14.00 14.00 14.00 15.00 16.00
JanJune.	5.00	16.00	5.00	14.00	10.00	16.00	4.50	13.00	7.00	20.00	9.00	16,00

¹ February to December, 1917, inclusive, burley, dark and bright red, common to good.

TOBACCO-Continued.

TABLE 114.—Tobacco: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1917—Continued.

	Cinci	ppati,	Wank		Louis	ville,		sville.		nond,	Balti	more.
Date.	comn	plug, ock, non to i red.	comm	neville, af, non to ne.	leaf (t dark comm	red), non to od.	comir	on to	comm		le (Mary	af land), um to
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1916. July August September October Nøvember December	Cents. 7.50 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00	Cents. 17.00 17.00 17.00 17.00 17.00 17.00	Cents, 7.50	Cents, 14.00	Cents. 11.00 11.00 11.00 11.00 11.00 11.00	Cents. 16.00 16.00 16.00 16.00 16.00 19.00	Cents, 4.50 4.50 4.50	Cents. 12.99 10.00 10.00	Cents. 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00	Cents. 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00	Cents. 11.00 13.00 16.00 17.00 17.00 17.00	Cents. 17.00 19.00 21.00 21.00 21.00 21.00
July-Dec .	7.50	17.00	7.50	14.50	11.00	19.00	4.50	12.00	9.00	18.00	11.00	21.00
1917. January February March April May June JanJune	16.00 16.00 15.00 15.00 15.00	21.00 21.00 21.00 20.00 20.00 21.00	10.75 11.00 10.50 10.00 10.00 10.00	17. 00 19. 00 16. 00 16. 00 14. 50 14. 00	13.00 15.00 15.00 15.00 15.00 15.00	19.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00	8.00 8.00 8.00	14. 10 14. 00 14. 00 14. 50	9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 12.00 12.00	18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 27.00 27.00	17.00 17.00 17.00 18.00 18.00 19.00	21.00 21.00 21.00 24.00 24.00 24.00
JanJune July August September October November December	15.00 15.00 15.00 15.00 23.00 23.00	20.00 20.00 20.00 28.00 28.00 28.00 28.00	10.00	14.00	17.00 21.00 22.00 22.00 24.00 24.00	24.00 24.00 24.00 24.00 32.00 32.00	8.00 12.00 6.00	14.50 15.00 14.00	12.00	27.00	19.00 21.00 22.00 22.00 22.00 22.00 22.00	26,00 26,00 28,00 28,00 28,60 28,60
July-Dec.	15.00	28.00	10.50	20.50	17.00	32.00	6.00	15.00	12.00	27.00	19.00	28.00

Table 115.—Tobacco (unmanufactured): International trade, calendar years 1909-1916. [Tobacco comprises leaf, stems, strippings, and tombac, but not snuff. See "General note," table 85.]

EXPORTS. [000 omitted.]

Country.	A ver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.).	1916 (pre- lim.).	Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.).	1916 (pre- lim.).
From— Aden ¹			Pounds.		Pounds. 1,845	Pounds.	Pounds.
Algeria	7,739 11,681	7, 421 14, 282	• • • • • • • •	Mexico	3,786	10.948	4,760
Austria-Hungary	23, 192	l 		Paraguay	11,361	15,782	
Brazil	59, 991	59, 735	46,943	Persia 2	3,874		
British India	28,874	32 877		Philippine Islands	26,018	24,663	39,655
Bulgaria	4,310			Russia	23, 283	6, 499	16, 106
Ceylon	4,093 38,035	38, 799	•••••	United States Other countries	381, 127 94, 995	435, 895 40, 956	483, 955
Dominican Republic	22, 395	13,747		other countries		10,000	
	163, 823	181, 749		Total	928, 535	916, 585	
	18, 113	33, 232			,	,	

IMPORTS.

Into-	1			Into-		,	
Aden 1	11,619	8,717		Italy	47,732	36,693	43, 037
Argentina. Australia	14, 988 13, 740	17,644 14,047	19, 168	Norway.	57, 218 3, 994	59,627 4,591	59, 767 5, 149
Austria-Hungary	49, 984	14,027		Portugal.	6, 565	4,733	0, 1-50
Belglum	22,094			Nigeria	6,050		
British India	6,538	5, 315		Spain	51,026	40,780	33, 401
Canada	17,891	18, 245	20,878	Sweden	9,772		
China	15, 113	10, 230	19,618	Switzerland	17 949	17, 591	21,826
Denmark	8,774					190,686	151, 198
Egy pt	19,005	15, 472	15,000	United States	52,768	41,304	49, 471
Egypt Finland	9,597	13,719	14,947	Other countries	51,366	27,052	
France	63,914	51, 425	65,924				
Germany	168, 437			Total	844,090	577,800	
				D:-::-		لممط	0

¹ Year beginning Apr. 1.

² Year beginning Mar. 21.

APPLES.
TABLE 116.—Apples: Production and prices, Dec. 1, by States, 1911–1917.

C4-4-		Produ	ction (1	oushels,	000 omi	tted).		Far	m p	rice j	per b	ushe	l (ce	nts).
State.	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island	6,800 1,600 2,250 3,000 400	2, 200 2, 600 3, 300	800 700	2,000 3,200	1,058 972 2,655	1,596	1,035	79 78 89	55 79 76	113 123 134	53 53 57 65 65	89 90 94 90 108	90	95 120 130 155 150
Connecticut	2,400 39,000 3,100 20,500 300	44,000 1,700 12,700	2,100	49,600 3,400 23,100	25,585 2,331 15,254	37,800 2,250	2,041	59 60 54	50 72 70	85 89	65 45 55 50 58	80 71	75 100 80	132 125 126
Maryland	2,600 7,200 7,800 3,600 470	15,000 10,300 7,600	1,300 5,200 1,000 3,000 260	15,300 12,400 9,000	13,176 7,540 5,916	13, 299	2,525 9,974 5,994 6,156 818	74 71 88	55 75	86 130 95		64 75	76 80	101 122 114
Georgia Ohio Indiana Illinois	800 18,700 8,900 10,600	10,600 4,200	900 4,800 6,600 8,200	13,300	1,875 17,952 11,648 14,148	1,623 8,601 3,921 4,848	1,754 6,336 5,915 7,500	54 68	84	108 110 88 94	63	55	100	121
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri.	12,300 3,000 1,300 9,500 11,600	2,000 700 1,500	7,100	2,200 700 1,600	4,418 1,235 9,660	12, 480 2, 634 1, 266 4, 725 8, 100	5, 160 3, 029 1, 445 5, 775 12, 375	93 102 81	88 98 101	95	90		110 145 145	134 155 145
South Dakota Nebraska Kansas. Kentucky	240 3,600 2,400 6,100	2,800 6,700	320 2,300 2,700 6,900	3,100	3,800 6,375	348 1,701 2,550 6,441	349 2, 400 3, 375 9, 125	83 100	88 71	145 108 110 92	95		140 130	140 135
Tennessee. Alabama Mississippi Texas.	2,900 700 240 200	1,200	3,900 900 370 300	1,600 500	1,596 424	4, 900 1, 140 225 450	5,000 1,453 315 345	130 122	106	112	94 95		120	
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana W yoming Colorado	1,050 3,000 900 20 2,700	5, 100 900 30	1,100 4,000 840 30 3,300	5,000 900	3,550 1,040	1,838 768	1,300 2,683 911 2,640	115		142 150	83 76 138	70 70 145	110	100
New Mexico Arizona. Utah. Nevada.	680 110 460 100	130 680	650 90 610 160	100 800	120 427	357 138 75 45	657 135 650 192	195 110	204	217 96	186 63	170 95	182	205 80
Idaho Washington Oregon California	1,200 3,500 1,500 4,700	7,700 4,100	1,400 6,900 3,500 3,000	8,300 3,600	7,300 3,128	400 14, 858 3, 855 5, 754		118 111	85 70 69 90	85	64 81	80 75	80 85	105
United States.	214, 020	235, 220	145, 410	253, 200	230, 011	204, 582	174,608	72.1	66.3	98. 1	59.4	69.0	91.2	122.0

TABLE 117.—Approximate relative production of principal varieties of apples, expressed as percentages of a normal crop of all apples.

Variety.	United States.	Maine.	New York.	Pennsylvania.	Virginia.	West Virginia.	Ohio.	Michigan.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Kentuaky.	Arkansas.	Washington.	Oregon.	California.
Arkansas (Mammoth Black Twig). Arkansas Black Baldwin. Ben Davis. E a r l y H a r v e s t (Prince's Harvest)	P. ct. 0. 7 . 9 13. 4 13. 3	0. 2 34. 5 9. 8	31.3 5.0	0.3 .2 17.8 6.0	3.1 .7 2.8	0.7 .8 5.8	0.6 .1 15.1 13.9	0.0	0.9 .7 2.8	1.1 1.5 1.5 84.2	0. 9 3. 0	2.3 3.0 .4	0.3 2.3 7.8	1. 1 12. 6 4.9	P. et. 0.3 1.0 2.2 3.9

APPLES-Continued.

Table 117.—Approximate relative production of principal varieties of apples, expressed as percentages of a normal crop of all apples—Continued.

															_
Variety.	United States.	Maine,	New York.	Pennsylvania.	Virginis.	West Virginia.	Оћ.	Michigan.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Kentucky.	Arkansas.	Washington.	Oregon.	California.
Fall Pippin	P. ct. 1. 7 1. 3 1. 6 1. 4	0.7 3.5	P.ct. 1.7 2.4 .2 2.0	3.1 .6	P. ct. 1. 8 . 1 . 6 . 3	P.ct. 1.5 .0 1.6 1.6	. 9	1.6 3.0 .3 3.7	1. 1 1. 5	0. 4 6. 5	2. 4 . 0	0.7 .1 6.6	P.ct. 0.8 .3 .8 .3	0.8	0.6 .0 .2
Golden)	2. 2 . 9 8. 6	8	.1		1.0 1.0	1.7	.0 1.8			3.6 .5 10.4	2. 6 2. 1 2. 5	1.5	1. 6 13. 8	. 1 4. 4	1.7
Limbertwig)	1.6 .9 2.0	8.7	.0 1.6 1.0	 3.0	2. 5 . 1 1. 5	. 8 . 1 2. 5		.0 .3 2.6	. 4	1.5 .1 2.8	4.0 .1 4.5		.3	.2 .1 .2	
pin)	.8 6.1	7.1	. 0 13. 1 . 9		.2 .8	.1 4.2		17.9 1.9	1. 2 1. 4	1. 1	.5 1.4 .4	.5	. 5 3. 8 1. 0		.6.
Oldenburg (Duchess of Oldenburg) Red Astrachan Red June (Carolina Red June)	1.9 1.9	2. 9 3. 9	2. 2 2. 1	1. 1 3. 5	.1	. 5 2. 1	1.0 2.7	5. 0 2. 8	1.7 .8	.5 .8	.1	5	1.1 1.7	.3 2.2	2.3
Rhode Island Green- ing (Greening) Rome Beauty Stayman Winesap	1.6 4.7 3.1 1.5	4. 1 . 1	.7 14.8 .3 .1	5. 5 2. 1	.3 1.2	1.4	5.7 10.8	5. 4 . 2	.8				2.2	i	27 24
Tolman (Talman Sweet)	1.0		2.1	1.1	.1	. 4	.5	2.4	. 3	.2	.3		.9		.0 1.1
Co) Wealthy White Pearmain (White Winter Pearmain)	1. 4 2. 2	5.4		1.2	.0	1.1	1.2	8.7		2	3	.1	1.5	1.1	.1
Winesap	5. 1 .9 1. 4	1.4	.3	1.3	20.7	1.8 .6 1.5	.5	1.5	5.6 •4 •5	. 7	.3 14.0 .3 .6		7.1	2.9 1.7 3.4	1.4 .1 18.6
bermarle; Newtown Pippin) Yellow Transparent York Imperial (Johnson Fine Winter)	1.6 1.5 2.1	1.1	.2 .3			.3 3.2 5.0	2.1	.3 1.4			3. 2 3. 1	.,		1.6	.1
Other varieties	10.4	7.0	8.9	12.8	10. 2	13. 4		11.0	7.4		12. 5	8. 2			8.2

NOTE.—In important apple-producing States not included in table, the principal varieties and their respective percentages of all apples in a normal crop are:

Indiana.—Ben Davis 22.8, Baldwin 7.2, Grimes Golden 6.7, Winesap 6.7, Maiden Blush 5.8, Rome Beauty 4.4, Northern Spy 4.2. North Carolina.—Limbertwig 14.3, Winesap 12.2, Ben Davis 7.5, Early Harvest 2.4, Horse 6.3, Red June 5.9. Tennessee.—Winesap 14.1, Ben Davis 12.2, Limbertwig 12.1, Early Harvest 2.4, Horse 6.3, Red June 5.4. Iowa.—Ben Davis 15.2, Wealthy 12.4, Jonathan 10.3, Oldenburg 8.9, Grime Golden 4.9, Northwestern Greening 4.3. Zansas.—Ben Davis 19.4, Winesap 15.3, Jonathan 18.3, Gano 7.3, Rome Beauty 4.5, Winesap 4.1. Massechusetts.—Baldwin 48.4, Rhode Island Greening 9.3, Gravenstein 5.7, Melntosh Red 5.7, Northern Spy 5.1. Nebraska.—Ben Davis 21.3, Winesap 13.6, Jonathan 9.4, Wealthy 6.2, Oldenburg 5.3, Grimes Golden 4.8, Missouri Pippin 4.2, Gano 4.0. Wisconsin.—Oldenburg 14.7, Wealthy 15.1, Northwestern Greening 11.1, Famenuse (Snow) 8.0, Wolf River 7.5, Ben Davis 17.6, Golden Russet 4.4, Early Harvest 4.2. New Jersey.—Baldwin 25.2, Ben Davis 14.5, Rome Beauty 6.0, Early Harvest 4.2, Rhode Island Greening 8.1, Microsh 6.1, Ben Davis 14.5, Rome Beauty 6.0, Early Harvest 4.2, Rhode Island Greening 5.9, Northern Spy 4.2. Vermont.—Baldwin 15.1, Rhode Island Greening 12.5, Rhode Island Greening 5.9, Northern Spy 5.2, McIntosh 4.4. Idaho.—Jonathan 21.3, Rome Beauty 16.8, Ben Davis 13.1, Gano 7.8, Winesap 7.6, Gano 4.0. Georgia.—Horse 14.3, Ben Davis 12.2, Red June 10.0, Limbertwig 8.8, Winesap 7.6, Early Harvest 6.1, Arkansas Black 1.6.

PEACHES.

TABLE 118 .- Peaches: Production, and prices Sept. 15, by States, 1911-1917.

	1	roduc	tion, b	us he ls	(90 0 or	uitted.).	F	erm I	price j	per bu	shel (cents).
State.	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917
New Hampshire	97 22 249	128	263	8 81 14 142 530	58 152 29 835 2,106	24 66 14 184 1,238	47 145 20 268 2,244	275 200 142	220 221 160	175 147	180 170 175 160	150 130 103 96	200 226 148 190 140	185 200 180 170 140
New Jersey	1,096 249 492 318	521 672	483 922 312 480 312	1,140 1,541 608 1,032 911	2,044 842	346	871 1,440 647 975 800	175 189 188 138	135 186 150 140 96	150 180 125 106 150	98 125 95 98 100	79 89 36 35 80	160 150 150 150 128	170 170 125 120 160
West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina. Georgia. Florida.	280 437 649 2,145 126	6, 175	132 598 405 1,950 112	896 1,863 1,166 5,785 188	1,164 1,955 864 5,330 177	520 897 545 3,510 119	608 1,541 1,130 4,716 122	154 124 128 149 150	112 98 105 101 100	210 120 125 130	105 95 110 100 100	75 90 100 100 75	150 138 105 155 200	175 125 120 160
Ohio	1,147 2,310	185 82	931 1,276 1,998 1,539 632	1,653 1,128 1,755 1,247 472	2,448 648 874 2,360 112	788 780	496 592 864 744 30	14 9 118 84 111 152	144 169 146 165 133	115 15 0	140 110 105 140 135	97 120 110 97 150	155 135 150 124 200	215 210 195 200 220
Missouri. Nebraska. Kansas. Kentucky. Tennessee.	2,700 36 851 770 360	240 2,016 1,210		3,780 192 1,760 1,980 2,640	8,300 120 2,442 1,320 2,460	1,050 80 150 880 900	990 121 1,034 990	98 125 124 109 125	107 156 100 94 77	98 150 150 90 110	90 150 120 75 78	85 140 100 95 80	105 925 180 110 95	185 285 195 150 120
Alabama. Missiscippi. Louisiana. Texas. Oklahoma.	840 460 190 1,204 656	1,800 693 4,140	1,140 1,020 460 2,107 869	2,810 1,440 356 1,196 220	1,540	1,110 400 587 2,860 230	1,830 375 478 2,352 1,150	100 121 83 148 128	100 96 150 97 68	100 98 110 120 120	100 85 100 140 130	90 83 88 87 57	100 88 75 100 120	145 120 150 170 185
Arkansas Colorado New Mexico Arizona Utah	2,346 363 86 51 208	1,035 84 54	3, 120 360 52 57 284	3, 180 1, 025 106 60 880	5,940 650 154 60 212	750 406 40 56 84	1,200 60 60 900	167 175 85 225 183	78 100 137 215 106	124 150 200	87 60 130 175 71	63 125 65 95	87 125 170 200 125	125 200 196 195 180
Nevada	10 81 320 190 7,41	112 445 292	92 446 3 11 7,150	9 120 486 887 10,387	7 162 566 482 9,768	1 25 415 276 11,783	165 504 260 14,151	154 106 174 111	184 76 183 94	120 110 130 182	100 96 110 80	126 70 80 84 55	165 96 100 80	120 100 110 110
United States	34, 880	5 2, 3 43	39, 707	54, 109	64, 097	37, 505	45,066	122. 1	102.0	131. 6	97.7	80.0	113. 0	135. 9

PEARS.

TABLE 119.—Pears: Production, and prices Nov. 15, 1911-1917.

<u>.</u>	1	Produc	tion (t	ushels	; 000 oı	nited)		F	arm p	rice p	er bu	shel (cent	B).
State.	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917
Maine	42 24 25 114 14	38 19 20 71 11	32 24 20 121 16	40 22 17 96 13	30 18 17 75 10	36 25 24 114 14	24 19 14 71 7	125	75 75 88 150	125	105	85	120 120 120	
Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	46 1,886 970 646 262	32 1,128 749 418 315	2,016 598 456 77	43 1,298 876 608 210	36 1,375 596 494 228	46 1,675 687 509 164	29 1,708 590 448 294	108 55 38 70 100	138 80 54 85 40	250 79 65 100	85 50 70 38	59 74	68 90	144 77 12 6
MarylandVirginiaWest Virginia West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina	455 122 49 52 52	616 282 76 207 117	224 68 11 58 42	560 234 72 187 109	483 261 63 150 91	378 122 42 75 56	525 194 33 150 100	110 120 125 100	95 73 80 89 92	151 130 122 110	25 73 94 85 94	68 100 80	120 100	13 12
Georgia	111 88 736 585 499	212 78 624 448 448	118 58 400 474 422	208 112 544 422 422	203 104 560 410 496	135 54 376 351 354	140 46 334 410 456	78 60 72	93 62 65 70 70	140 110 70 88	94 70 69 90	70	100 95	10 12 10
Michigan	829 18 57 148 10	540 13 60 332 15	707 22 102 184 13	840 22 84 283 14	550 23 106 294 18	1,007 26 63 164 10	1,080 82 265 14	60 125 110 115 175	75 90 105 85 111	92 120 120 170	58 99 120 85 147	72 81 80 120	130 105	12 14 12 17
Kansas Kentucky Tennessee	70 160 32	142 836 196	63 160 79	109 308 152	133 264 195	106 160 59	140 204 75	157 125 140	100 91 99	160 100 120	110 85 100	78	100	12
Alabama	48 40 24 147 33	172 154 52 296 54	90 106 48 187 23	132 142 52 266 28	168 160 55 301 68	90 50 48 822 11	80 30 52 280 45	125 150 100 134 175	100 110	120 100 130 113 160	98 100 83 85 125		105	10: 11: 16:
Arkansas	47 11 160 43	113 12 193 52	55 10 130 46	98 12 206 60	135 12 99 64	68 6 99 86	46	100 183 155 125	105 93	120 165 175 140	100	125 160		12 21
Arizona Utah Nevada	16 51 2	20 52 8	17 42 6	20 56 7	22 31 4	18 12 2	21 48 6	88	142 110	215 130	190 100		••••	12
Idaho Washington Oregon California	65 372 441 1,848	81 477 554 2,015	71 464 559 1,634	536 540 1,958	75 564 525 1,650	50 551 555 3,124	70 596 600 3,523	173 100 88 65		150 99 110 70	135 65 100 96	103 96	95 120	15 11 13 10
United States	11,450	11,843	10, 108	12,086	11, 216	11,874	13, 281	74.6	80.2	92.7	78.5	89.7	93.3	115.

HOPS.

TABLE 120.—Hope: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA. United States	Acres. (1) 8 1, 164	Acres. 44,700	Acres. 43,900	Pounds. 143,415,352 1,208,450	Pounds. 52,996,000	Pounds. 50,595,000
Total				44,623,802		
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria- Hungary- Croatia-Slavonia	4 45, 664 6 5, 444 6 751	4 41,043 (1) (1)		4 36, 252, 442 5 4, 623, 928 6 292, 991	4 20, 479, 000 2, 755, 750	(1) (1)
Total Austria- Hungary	51,859			41,169,361		
Belgium	6,140 6,748 68,410 (1) 36,661	(1) 5,471 58,654 (1) 34,744	(1) 5,379 (1) (1) 31,352	7,560,000 7,034,438 51,227,408 15,889,632 56,812,896	4,909,000 32,106,251 16,472,712 28,516,208	4,967,704 (1) (1) (1) 34,479,872
Total				177,888,095		
AUSTRALAMA.			<u> </u>			
: Victoria South Australia Tasmania	117 3 1,853		107 3 1,405	107, 632 4, 480 1, 554, 560		95,760 784 2,013,760
Total	1,473	1,545	1,515	1,666,672	1,798,048	2,110,304
Grand total				224, 178, 569		

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TABLE 121.—Hops: Total production of countries named in Table 120, 1895-1914.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1895	Pounds. 204, 894, 000 168, 509, 000 189, 219, 100 166, 100, 100 231, 563, 100 174, 683, 000 201, 902, 100	1902. 1908. 1904. 1905. 1906. 1907.	Pounds. 170,063,000 174,457,000 178,802,000 277,260,000 180,988,000 215,923,000 220,220,000	1909. 1910. 1911. 1912. 1913. 1914.	Pounds. 128, 173, 000 188, 961, 000 163, 810, 000 224, 493, 000 174, 642, 000 224, 179, 900

TABLE 122.—Hops: Acreage, production, and value in the United States, 1915-1917.

Year. ,	Acreage.	Average yield per acre.	Production.	Average farm price per pound Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
1915	Acres.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Cents.	Dollars.
	44,653	1, 186. 6	52, 986, 000	11. 7	6,203,000
	43,900	1, 152. 5	50, 595, 000	12. 0	6,073,000
	29,900	929. 4	27, 786, 000	33. 7	9,363,000

No official statistics.
 Commercial movement for year beginning July 1.
 Census of 1910.

<sup>Galicia and Bukowina not included.
1913 figures.
Excludes Poland.</sup>

HOPS-Continued.

TABLE 123.—Hops: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1917.

	New	York.	Cinci	nnati.	Chic	ago.			San Fr	ancisco.		
Date.	Choice	State.	Pri	me.	goo	coast, d to dce.	Sacramento Valley, choice.		Val	mette ley, ice.	Eastern Washington, choice.2	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cents. 37 22	Cents. 56 42	Cents. 41 223	Cents. 49 34	Cents. 40 20	Cents. 50 30	Cents. 40 17	Cents. 50 201	Cents. 38 184	Cents. 50 21	Cents. 36 184	Cents. 50 21
1913. JanJune July-Dec	17 17	32 48	18 18	23 32	15 17	24 31	18 18	20 28	19 18	21 30	19 19	21 31
1914. JanJune July-Dec	36 23	48 50	21 13½	271 22	18 13	27 22	16 10	28 19	16 11	80 20	16 10	30 20
1915. JanJune July-Dec	13 13	25 30	16 15]	17 16	10 10	18 16	9 7½	15 14	10 10	16 16	10 10	15 15
1916. January February March April May June	24 24 22 19 18 20	27 25 23 23 20 22	14 14 14 14 14 14	15½ 15 15 15 15 15	14 14 15 15 14	16 16 17 17 16 16	71 8 8 8 8	11 11 11 11 11	9 10 10 10 10 10	121 121 121 121 121 121	10 10 10 10 10	12 12 12 12 12 13
JanJune	18	27	14	151	14	17	73	11	9	124	- 9	19
July	16 15 28 53 49 47	21 18 55 55 55 53 50	13 14 13 15 15 15	141 14 16 161 161 161	14 13 12 14 11 10	16 15 14 18 17 16	8 8 8 13 10 10	11 11 14 14 14 14	10 10 7 13 9	123 124 14 14 11 11	10 10 8 12 8 7	194 12 13 13 14 14
July-Dec	15	55	13	16}	10	18.	8	14	7	14	7	14
1917. January February March April May June	45 45 39 38 34 34	50 47 42 42 42 42 38	14 14 13 12 12 11	15 15 14 18 13 12	13 12 12 10 10	15 14 14 18 12 12	9 8 6 5 5 5	10½ 10½ 10 9 9	7 7 7 7 7	11 11 11 11 11 11	9 9 8 6 6	11 11 11 11 10 10
JanJune	34	50	11	15	10	15	5	101	7	11	6	11
July August September October November December	34 38 88 78 70 53	40 40 90 90 78 70	13 16 25 40 32 30	16 26 40 43 38 32	10 22 42 43 83 26 24	12 25 46 87 20 28	5 12 30 20 20	10 27 27 37 37 30 20	7 12 324 20 224	12 30 30 40 32 22	6 13 321 221 20	11 30 30 40 32 20
July-Dec	34	90	13	43	10	46	5	374	7	40	6	40

 ¹⁹¹² quotations are for all grades. Called "Oregon" hops in 1916.
 Called "Washington" hops in 1916.

HOPS-Continued.

TABLE 124.—Hope: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[Lupulin and hop/camehl (hop meal) are not included with hops in the data shown. See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[909 omitted.]

Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 (Pre- limi- nary).	1916 (Prelim- inary).	Country.	Aver- age 1909- 1913.	1915 (Pre- limi- nary).	1916 (Pre- limi- nary).
From-		Pounds.	Pounds.	From—		Pounds.	
Austria-Hungary Belgium	18,333 4,814			Russia United Kingdom	2,348 2,162	485 928	542 1,206
France.	835	1,259	1,432	United States	15,416	20,865	18,506
Germany	17,564			Other countries	212	384	
Netherlands	1,405 352	1,120 486		Total	00.041	07 707	
Man Sestimod	352	486		Total	62,941	25,527	

IMPORTS.

Into				Into-			
Australia Austria-Hungary	1,106 938	994		Netherlands	2,938 1,258	3, 484	
British India British South Africa	6,915 246	141		Sweden Switzerland	987 1,257	967	779
Ganada Denmark	498 1,896 1,027	458 955	439 781	United Kingdom United States Other countries	21,028 6,235 4,123	22,327 6,767 2,761	16, 369 631
France. Germany	5, 436 7, 668	102	709	Total	63,076	38,956	
						,	

BEANS.

TABLE 125.—Beans: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA. United States	A cres. 1 875,000	Acres. 1 928, 000	Acres. 1,244,000	Bushels. 111,585,000	Bushels. 1 10,321,000	Bushels. 12,029,000
Canada: Nova Scotia New Brunswick Quebec. Ontario. British Columbia	.1,000 (*) 5,000 38,000 (*)	1,000 (1) 5,000 37,000	1,000 (3) 4,000 27,000	18,000 6,000 89,000 684,000	15,000 6,000 103,000 600,000	14,000 4,000 78,000 317,000 1,914,000
Total Canada	44,000	43,000	32,000	797, 000	724,000	413,000
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Brazil. Chile.	72,000 (³) 76,000	(a) (a) 106,000	(8)	(*) 4 163 1,377,000	(*) 4 10,000 1,876,000	(*) 41,675,000 1,914,000
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria*. Hungary*. Do.*. Croatia-Slavonia*. Do.*.	664,000 28,000 1,471,000 24,000 411,000		9999	6 8, 725, 000 6 393, 000 6 7, 865, 000 6 337, 000 6 1, 760, 000	9 9 9 9	
Total Austria-Hun-	2 , 598, 000			€ 19, 080, 000		

Five States:Less than 500 acres.

No official estimates.

[•] Includes other pulse gitize Grown alone.
• 1913 figures.
• Grown with corn.

BEANS-Continued.

Table 125.—Beans: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916—Con.

40.00		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
EUROPE—continued. Belgium¹. Belgaria¹. Denmark. France. tealy. Luxemburg.	Acres. 20,000 212,000 110,000 547,000 2,705,000 43,000	Acres. (2) (3) 7,000 2,702,000 (2) (2)	Acres. (2) (3) (1),000 2,555,000 (9),000	Bushels, 514,000 2,482,000 211,000 9,354,000 16,997,000	Bushels. (2) (2) 192,000 28,177,000 24,629,000 (2)	Bushels. (2) (2) (2) 269,00
Netherlands Roumania 5 Do.7	59,000 161,000 1,409,000	\$8,000 186,000 1,455,000	188,000 (2)	1,946,000 2,122,000 3,666,000	1,905,080 1,993,000 3,573,000	(2) (2)
Russia: 6 Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	1,175,000 (2) 9,000	978,000 (2) · 3,000	744,000 (2) (2)	8,482,000 (1) 94,000	* 8,373,000 (2) 48,000	* 7, 758,00 (*) (*)
Total European Rus-	1,184,000	981,000		8, 576, 000	8, 421, 000	
SerbiaSpainSweden	1 30,000 1,149,000 6,000	1,201,000 8,000	1,225,000 6,000	1 1, 491, 000 12, 527, 000 75, 000	13, 226, 000 148, 000	(*) 14,755,08 195,08
United Kingdom: England Wales Scotland Ireland	283, 900 1, 000 6, 000 1, 000	257,000 1,000 5,000 1,000	228,000 1,000 5,000 1,000	8,907,000 36,000 243,000 57,000	7, 353, 600 29, 660 202, 600 42, 600	7, 667, 68 29, 66 202, 66 48, 66
Total United King- dom	291,000	264,000	235,000	9, 243, 000	7, 626, 000	7, 366, 66
ASIA. British India 8	8,951,000	13,778,000	13,224,000	• 72, 315, 000	• 143,397,090	127, 979, 00
Japanese Empire: Japan Formosa ³ Chosen	1,569,000 92,000 1,480,000	1,587,000 91,000 (²)	(5)	25,921,000 681,000 16,530,000	27,026,000 786,000 (*)	(2) (2) (3)
Total Japanese Empire	3,141,000			43, 122, 000		
Russia (9 governments)	3,000	3,000		35,000	21,000	
AFRICA. Algeria Egypt	1 136,000 445,000	(2) 647,000	(2) 522,000	¹ 1,022,000 (2)	(2) (2)	(2)
AUSTRALASIA.				***********	-	
Australia	(10)	(u)	1,000	(¹¹)	(π)	10,000

 ^{1 1912} figures.
 2 No official statistics.
 8 Excludes territory occupied by the enemy.
 1913 figures.

 ⁶ Grown alone.
 ⁶ Includes lentils.
 ⁷ Grown with corn.

<sup>Includes other pulse.
Incomplete.
Included under pess.</sup>

BEANS-Continued.

TABLE 126.—Beans: Acreage, production, and value in the United States, 1914-1917.
[Leading producing States.]

Year.	Acreage.	Average yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	A verage farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
1914 1915 1916 1917	Acres. 875,000 928,000 1,107,000 1,832,000	Bushels. 13. 2 11. 1 9. 7 8. 6	Bushels. 11,585,000 10,321,000 10,715,000 15,701,000	Dollars. 2. 26 2. 59 5. 10 6. 52	Dollars. 26,213,000 26,771,000 54,686,000 102,426,000

TABLE 127.—Beans: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1917.

	Bos	ton.	Chie	cago.	Det	roit.	San Fr	ancisco.
Date.	P	88.	P	86.	P	9a.		l white. 0 lbs.).
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
Jan:-June 1912. July-Dec	Dolls. 2.55 2.55	Dolls. 3.05 3.10	Dolls. 2.35 1.90	Dolls. 2.98 3.20	Dolls. 2.32 2.15	Dolls. 2.70 2.70	Dolls. 4.00 4.00	Dolls. 4.75 4.80
1913. Jan.–June July-Dec	2. 35 2. 15	2.60 2.40	1. 25 1. 15	2. 50 2. 25	1.80 1.75	2. 20 2. 05	4. 50 4. 50	5. 85 5. 85
IgnJune	2. 10 2. 15	2.35 3.10	1.60 1.95	2.30 3.10	1. 80 1. 85	2. 10 2. 90	4.75 4.00	5. 50 6. 00
IanJune July-Dec	2. 95 2. 85	3.50 4.10	2. 40 2. 62	3. 50 4. 10	2. 15 2. 60	3. 20 8. 60	4.50 4.50	5. 70 6. 40
January. February. March April May June	3. 95 3. 90 3. 80 3. 80 8. 80 4. 00	4. 10 4. 10 4. 00 4. 10 4. 35 5. 85	3. 85 3. 55 3. 45 3. 00 3. 50 3. 75	4. 15 4. 15 4. 60 4. 60 4. 25 8. 00	3. 55 3. 60 3. 50 3. 65 3. 80 4. 10	3.70 3.70 3.65 3.75 4.10 6.00	6. 35 6. 35 6. 35 6. 25 6. 65 7. 25	6. 40 6. 40 6. 65 7. 25 11. 50
JanJune	3. 80	5. 85	3.00	8.00	3.50	6.00	6. 25	11.50
July August September October November	5.00 4.50 4.50 4.50 6.75 6.50	6. 50 6. 00 5. 75 6. 75 7. 25 7. 25	5. 00 5. 00 5. 00 5. 40 6. 50 6. 40	8. 00 7. 00 6. 25 6. 25 7. 50 7. 50	5. 50 5. 50 4. 90 4. 90 6. 00 5. 75	7. 00 5. 75 5. 75 6. 50 6. 75 6. 40	10.00 7.50 8.00 7.50 9.50 10.50	11. 00 10. 00 8. 50 9. 50 10. 50
July-Dec	4.50	7. 25	5.00	8.00	4.90	7.00	7. 50	11.00
January. February March April May June	6. 50 6. 90 7. 35 7. 85 9. 00 9. 00	6. 90 7. 50 7. 85 9. 25 10. 25 10. 00	6. 40 6. 75 7. 35 7. 60 9. 75 9. 50	6. 80 7. 50 8. 00 11. 00 11. 25 10. 00	6. 25 6. 45 7. 25 7. 80 9. 00 8. 00	6.65 7.25 7.60 10.00 10.00 9.00	10.50 10.50 11.50 12.25 15.00 15.00	11.00 12.00 12.50 16.00 16.00
JanJune	6. 50	10. 25	6. 40	11. 25	6. 25	10.00	10.50	16.00
July August September October November	8. 75 8. 00 8. 00 8. 25 9. 25 14. 00	9. 25 8. 50 8. 35 9. 25 15. 00 14. 75	8. 75 7. 25 7. 25 7. 85 8. 75 13. 25	10.00 8.60 8.00 9.50 14.50 14.50	7. 90 7. 25 7. 25 8. 25 8. 00 12. 10	8. 25 8. 00 8. 00 9. 25 13. 25 13. 25	14.00 13.75 12.75 12.50 12.25 11.75	15. 75 14. 00 13. 75 13. 25 12. 50 12. 25
July-Dec	8.00	15.00	7. 25	14. 50	7. 25	13. 25	11(75)	Q15(7 5

PEAS.

TABLE 128.—Peas: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Bushels. 17,129,000	Bushels.	Bushels.
Canada: Prince Edward Island. Nova Scotia. New Brunswick. Quebec. Ontario. Manitoba.	(*) (*) 24,000 179,000	(*) (*) (*) 24,000 169,000	(*) (*) (*) 22,000 126,000	3,000 4,000 10,000 432,000 2,864,000	1,000 3,000 7,000 404,000 3,007,000	1,000 3,000 7,000 302,000 1,796,000
Saskatchewan Alberta British Columbia	(3) (3) (4) 1,000	(3) (3) (3) 1,000	2,000 1,000 1,000	8,000 41,000	9,000 9,000 39,000	52,000 13,000 44,000
Total Canada	206,000	196,000	152,000	3,362,000	3, 479, 000	2,218,000
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Chile4	27,000	32,900	36,000	373,000	471,000	515,000
EUROPE.						
Austria. Hungary Croatin-Slavonia Belgium. France Italy Luxemburg Netherlands. Roumania	\$ 71,000 \$ 30,000 7 10,000 8 12,000 61,000 (*) 7 2,000 65,000 55,000	*54,000 (2) (2) (2) *49,000 (2) (2) (3) (4) (4),000	(1) (2) (3) (4) (6) (6) (6) (77,000	\$ 1,373,000 7 426,000 7 147,000 8 400,000 1,116,000 3,368,000 7 28,000 1,871,000 857,000	9 497,000 (2) (3) (4) 9 854,000 3,020,000 (7) 1,818,000 750,000	2,704,000
Russia: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	2, 183, 000 (2) 5, 000	9 1,395,000 (2) 3,000	9 1,070,000 (2) (2)	17,329,000 (1) 72,000	9 13, 457, 000 (2) 73, 000	" 12,201,000
Total Russia, Euro-	2,188,000	1,398,000		17, 401, 000	13, 530, 000	
Berbia Spain 4 Bweden	1, 268, 000 55, 000	1,346,000 54,000	1,392,000 55,000	7 70,000 11,016,000 717,000	11,382,000 1,150,000	13, 309, 000 1, 123, 000
United Kingdom: England Wales. Scotland Ireland	129,000 (3) (3) (3)	98,000 (3) (3) (3)	85,000 (*) (*)	3,063,000 10,000 5,000 9,000	2,481,000 8,000 3,000 6,000	2, 137, 000 9, 000 4, 000 5, 000
Total United King- dom	130,000	98,000	86,000	3,087,000	2, 478, 000	2, 155, 000
ASIA. Fapan Russia (9 governments)	108,000 77,000	110,000 82,000	(2)	2,168,000 941,000	2, 123, 000 552, 000	(3)
AFRICA.		(0)	(0)	9.077.000	(8)	(4)
Algeria	* 26,000	(2)	(3)	8 277,000	(3)	(1)
Australia. Australia. New Zealand.	10 39,000 14,000	10 41,000 13,000	25,000 9,000	19 448, 000 453, 000	10 371, 000 367, 000	404, 00 168, 00

Census for 1909.
 No official statistics.
 Less than 500 acres.
 Includes chick-peas, lentils, and vetches.
 Galicia and Bukowina not included.

Includes lentils.

¹⁹¹³ figures.
1912 figures.
5 Excludes territory occupied by the enemy.
19 Includes beans.

SUGAR.

TABLE 129.—Sugar: Production in the United States and its possessions, 1856-57 to 1917-18.1

[Data for 1912-13 and subsequently beet sugar, also Louisiana and Hawaii cane sugar, estimated by United States Department of Agriculture; Porto Rico, by Treasury Department of Porto Rico; Philippine Islands, production estimated by the Philippine Department of Agriculture and exports for years ending June 30. For sources of data for earlier years, see Yearbook for 1912, p. 650. A short ton is 2,000 pounds.]

	Beet	ł	Cane st	igar (chief	ly raw).		
Year.	sugar (chiefly refined).	Louisi- ana.	Other States.	Porto Rico.	Hawaii.	Philip- pine Islands.	Total.
Average:	Shorttons	Short tons.	Short tons.	Short tons.	Short tons.	Short tons.	Short tone
1856-7 to 1860-61		132, 402	5,978	75,364		46,446	260, 190
1861–62 to 1865–66	. 269	74,036	1,945	71,765		54,488	202,503
1866-67 to 1870-71	448	44,768	3,818	96, 114		81,485	226, 633
1871-72 to 1875-76		67,341	4,113	87,606	27,040	119,557	279,020
1876-77 to 1880-81		104,920	5,327	76,579	27,040	169,067	383, 403
1881-82 to 1885-86	. 692	124,868	7,280	87,441	76,075	189, 277	485, 633
1886-87 to 1890-91	1.922	163,049	8, 439	70, 112	125, 440	186, 129	555.091
1891-92 to 1895-96	19,406	268, 655	6, 634	63, 280	162,538	286, 629	807, 142
1896-97 to 1900-1901	58, 287	282, 399	4,405	61, 292	282,585	134, 722	823, 690
1901-2 to 1905-6	239,730	352,063	12, 126	141, 478	403, 308	108, 978	1, 257, 673
1906-7 to 1910-11	479, 153	348,544	13,664	282, 136	516,041	145, 832	1,785,370
1901–2		360, 277	4,048	103, 152	355, 611	75,011	1,082,706
1902–3		368,734	4, 169	100,576	437,991	123, 108	1,252,984
1903-4	240,604	255,894	22, 176	138,096	367, 475	82,855	1, 107, 100
1904-5	242, 113	398, 195	16,800	151,088	426, 248	125, 271	1,359,715
1905-B	312,921	377, 162	13, 440	214,480	429, 213	138, 645	1,485,861
1906–7	483,612	257,600	14,560	206,864	440.017	132,602	1,535,255
1907-8	463,628	380,800	13,440	230, 095	521, 123	167, 242	1,776,328
1908-9	425, 884	397,600	16,800	277,093	535, 156	123,876	1,776,409
1909-10.	512, 469	364,000	11,200	346,786	517,090	140,783	1,892,328
1910–11	510, 172	342,720	12,320	349,840	566,821	164,658	1,946,531
1911-12	599,500	352.874	8,000	371.076	595,038	205,046	2, 131, 534
1912–13	692,556	153.573	9,000	398,004	546,524	4 345, 077	2, 144, 734
1813–14.	733, 401	292,698	7,800	351,666	612,000	408, 339	2, 405, 904
1914–15	722,054	242,700	3,920	346, 490	646,000	421, 192	2, 382, 356
1915–16	874.220	137,500	1,120	483, 590	592,763	6 412, 274	2,501,467
1916–17. 1917–18 (preliminary)	820,657	303,900	7,000	503,081	644,663	262, 425	2,001,101
1917-18 (preliminary)	765, 207	233,000	2,240	546,000	022,000	- 200, 720	

¹ Census returns give production of beet sugar for 1899 as 81,729 short tons; for 1904, 253,921; 1909, 501,682; production of cane sugar in Louisiana for 1839, 59,974 short tons; 1849, 226,001 hogsheads; 1859, 221,726 hogsheads; 1869, 80,706 hogsheads; 1879, 171,706 hogsheads; 1889, 146,062 short tons; 1898, 278,497 short tons; 1899, 159,837 and 1909, 325,516 short tons; cane sugar in other States, 1839, 491 short tons; in 1849, 21,576 hogsheads; in 1859, 9,256 hogsheads; in 1869, 6,337 hogsheads; in 1879, 7,166 hogsheads; in 1889, 4,580 short tons; in 1899, 1,991; and in 1909, 8,687 short tons.

² Includes Texas only, subsequent to 1902–3. Unofficial returns.

³ Exports, for years ending June 30.

⁴ Complete data not available for this period. Production in 1878–79, 1,254 short tons; in 1879–80, 1,304 short tons;

short tons.
Production.

TABLE 130.—Sugar beets and beet sugar: Production in the United States, 1911-1917.

	rjes.	of cam-	(chiefly	8	ugar b	eets used.		Analy bee	sis of ts.	Recov	ery of cee.4	
State and year.	Number of factories	Average length of campaign.	Sugar made (refined).	Ares har- vested.	Average yield per acre.	Quantity worked.	Average price per ton.	Percentage of sucrose.	Purity coeffi- cient.	Percentage of weight of beets.	Percentage of total sucrose in beets.	Loss.
California: 1917 1916 1915 1914	No. 14 11 11 10	Days. 92 108 97 97	Short tons. 209, 325 236, 322 195, 343 169, 004	Acres. 161,909 141,097 122,737 104,000	10.37 10.2	Short tons. 1,321,716 1,462,895 1,249,111 1,082,000	5.86	Per ct. 18. 48 18. 35 17. 82 18. 46	Per ct. 82.09 84.13 82.65 82.70		88. 01 87. 77	2.64 2.28 2.10
Colorado: 1917 1916 1915 1914	15 14 14 13	91 102 104 96	234,303 252,147 273,780 220,799	161, 476 188, 568 171, 222 135, 400	10. 25 11. 0	1, 749, 875 1, 933, 591 1, 888, 860 1, 706, 300	7. 28 6. 06 5. 88 5. 68	15. 40 15. 00 16. 53 15. 35	85, 16 85, 79 84, 84 84, 22	13. 04 14. 49	86. 93	1.96 2.04
Idaho: 1917 1916 1915 1914	7 5 4 4	70 86 100 78	88, 376 45, 874 51, 225 39, 613	37,745 42,135 35,068 25,300	9.7	286,446 331,478 339,859 264,400	7.06 6.16 5.08 4.96	16, 74 16, 95 17, 85 17, 78	84. 84 86. 39 87. 14 87. 74	13. 40 13. 84 15. 07 14. 98	81.65 84.43	3.11 2.78
Michigan: 1917 1916 1915	14 15 15 15	78	64, 247 69, 341 129, 997 110, 630	82, 151 99, 619 122, 000 101, 300	5. 05 8. 2	461,721 502,705 997,972 857,100	5. 91	16. 28 16. 37 15. 45 15. 78	86, 57 85, 22 84, 08 82, 85	13.03	85.44 84.24 84.34 81.81	2.58 2.42
Ohio: 1917 1916 1915 1914	5 4 4 3	70 45 80 56	24, 467 18, 234 33, 472 21, 425	24,234 24,767 25,684 17,800	10.91	202,624 137,696 279,427 184,700	7, 18 6, 83 5, 29 5, 04	16, 24 15, 89 14, 19 14, 50	86, 25 83, 36 81, 99 83, 82	12.08 13.24 11.98 11.60	83. 32 84. 43	2.65 2.21
1917 1916 1915 1914 Other States;	15 11 8 7	82 95 96 100	83,662 90,277 85,014 78,619	80, 289 68, 211 56, 226 41, 300	11.2	696,522 708, 237 629, 204 564, 600	7.04 5.73 4.91 4.79	15.61 16.05 16.43 17.03	82, 27 84, 79 85, 06 85, 60	12. 01 12. 75 13. 51 13. 92	76. 94 79. 44 82. 23 81. 74	3, 60 3, 30 2, 92 3, 11
1917 • 1916	21 14 11 8	60 66 84 76	110, 827 108, 462 105, 389 81, 964	116, 993 100, 911 78, 364 58, 300	8.35 9.8	906,641 843,071 765,860 629,500	7, 37 6, 18 5, 67 5, 67	15. 17 15. 69 16. 38 15. 80	81. 87 82. 67 84. 24 83. 35	12, 22 12, 87 13, 76 13, 02	80, 55 82, 06 84, 00 82, 40	2.83 2.63
United States; 1917	91 74 67 60 71 73 66	74 80 92 85 85 86 94	765, 207 820, 657 874, 220 722, 054 733, 401 692, 556 599, 500	664,797 665,308 611,301 483,400 580,006 555,300 473,877	10. 1 10. 9 8. 76 9. 41	5, 919, 673 6, 150, 293 5, 288, 500 5, 659, 462 5, 221, 377	7. 39 6. 12 5. 67 5. 45 5. 69 5. 82 5. 50	16. 28 16. 30 16. 49 16. 38 15. 78 16. 31 15. 89	83. 89 84. 74 84. 38 83. 89 83. 22 84. 49 82. 21	13. 60 13. 86 14. 21 13. 65 12. 96 13. 26 11. 84	83.54 85.03 86.17 83.33 82.13 81.12 74.51	2.44 2.28 2.73 2.82

Acreage and production of beets are credited, as in former reports, to the State in which the beets were made into sugar.
 Based upon weight of beets.
 Percentage of sucrose (pure sugar) in the total soluble solids of the beets.
 Percentage of sucrose actually extracted by factories.
 Percentage of sucrose (based upon weight of beets) remaining in molasses and pulp.
 Includes 4 factories in Nebraska, 4 in Wisconsin, 2 in Montana, 3 in Wyoming, and 1 each in Illinois. Indiana, Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington.

TABLE 131.—Cane-sugar production of Louisiana, 1911-1917.

[Figures for 1917 are from returns made before the end of the season, and are subject to revision.]

Year of cane	Factories	Quana.	Average sugar	Cas	ne used for s	Molasses made.		
harvest.	in opera- tion.	Sugar made.	made, per ton of cane.	Area.	A verage per acre.	Production.	Total.	Per ton of sugar.
1911	Number. 188 126 153 149 136 150 139	Short tons. 352, 874 153, 573 292, 698 242, 700 137, 500 303, 900 233, 000	Pounds. 120 142 139 152 135 149 130	Acres. 310,000 197,000 248,000 213,000 183,000 221,000	Short tons. 19 11 17 15 11	Short tons. 5, 887, 292 2, 162, 574 4, 214, 000 3, 199, 000 2, 018, 000 4, 072, 000 3, 000, 000	Gallons. 35, 082, 525 14, 302, 169 24, 046, 320 17, 177, 443 12, 743, 000 26, 154, 000	Gallons. 99 93 82 71 93 86

¹ Figures for molasses, 1911-1914, are as reported by the Louisiana Sugar Planters' Association; figures for later years as reported by Bureau of Crop Estimates, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

TABLE 132.—Cane-sugar production of Hawaii, 1913-1917.

	Facto-	Average		Can	e used for	sugar.		Ave extraction	
Island, and year ending Sept. 30.	year ending opera- of can	length of cam- paign.	Sugar made.	Area harvested.	Average yield per acre.	Production.	Total area in cane.	Per cent of cane.	Per short ton of cane.
	Num-		Short		Short	Short			
Hawaii:	ber.	Days.	tons.	Acres.	tons.	tons.	Acres.	Per cent.	Pounds.
Hawaii: 1917		184	232,140	52,700	36	1.898.000	100,300	12, 23	245
1916		l 179 l	197, 130	52, 627	33	1, 713, 759	98, 787	11.50	230
1915 1914 1913		196	240, 300	50, 800	41	2,099,000	100, 200	11.45	229
1914	23	174	213,000	51,000	36	1,854,000			230
1913	24	170	197, 212	53,600		1,703,000		11.58	232
Kauai:		-:-	,	55,555		1,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,			
Kauai: 1917		207	119.218	25,400	41	1.040.000	51.300	11.46	229
1916		191	108, 632	21, 392	43	927, 970		11.71	234
1915		203	115, 700	21,000	45	941,000	49, 200	12, 30	246
1914	9	214	121,000	21,600	50	1,089,000	1,		222
1914 1913	ă	198	100, 340	20,800	42				239
Maui:	•		200,010	20,000		0.2,000	l	11.00	
1917		160	147,755	23,600	47	1.108.000	49.300	13. 33	267
1916		168	150, 311	19 911	55	1,098,247		13.69	274
1015		174	160, 300	19,800	57	1, 126, 000	44, 400	14. 24	285
1914	7	167	145,000	19, 400	54	1,054,000	,		275
1913	ż	152	124, 820	19,700	47	299,000			260
		1 .02	121,020	1 20,100	•	1 220,000	١٠٠٠٠٠	10. 22	
Oahu: 1917		214	145.550	22,200	53	1.174.000	44.200	12.39	248
1916		179	136, 690	21,489	52	1, 119, 448		12.21	244
1915	•••••	205	129, 700	21,600		1,019,000	46,000	12.73	255
1914	7	188	133,000	20,700	44	1,012,000			295
1913	10	157	124, 152	20, 500	49	1,003,000		12.38	248
Territory of		137	121, 102	20,500		1,000,000		12.00	240
1917		190	644,663	123.900	42	5,220,000	245, 100	12, 35	247
1916		180	592, 763	115, 419	42	4,859,424	246, 332	12. 20	244
1915		195	646, 000	113, 200	46	5, 185, 000	239, 800	12.46	249
1914	46	183	612,000	112,700	43	4, 900, 000			
1913	50	169	546, 524		39				250 244
1919	οU	109	040, 024	114,600	J 39	4, 476, 000		12. 21	244

TABLE 133.—Sugar: Wholesale price per pound, on New York market, 1912-1917.

		Ra	w.						Refl	ned.				
Date.	89° p	asses, olari- lon.	96° p	ifugal, olari- ion.	Cut	loaf.	Powd	lered.	fin	ulated, e or dard.		sugar	Soft : No.	sugar . 15.
	Low.	High.	Low.	Hìgh.	Low.	Hìgh.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cts. 3.33 3.23	Cts. 4.30 3.86	Cts. 3.83 3.73	Cts. 4.80 4.36	Cts. 5. 80 5. 70	Cts. 6. 65 5. 90	Cts. 5. 10 5. 00	Cts. 5. 90 5. 20	Cts. 5.00 4.90	Cts. 5.85 5.15	Cts. 4.85 4.65	Cts. 5. 65 4. 95	Cts. 4.25 4.05	Ctr. 5.05 4.35
1913. JanJune July-Dec	2. 75 2. 62	3. 23 3. 30	8. 25 3. 12	3. 73 3. 80	5. 05 5. 05	5. 70 5. 60	4. 35 4. 25	5.00 4.90	4. 25 4. 15	4. 95 4. 85	4. 00 4. 05	4. 65 4. 55	8. 40 3. 45	4.06 3.95
JanJune July-Dec		2.98 5.87	2. 92 3. 26	3. 48 6. 52	5. 05 5. 25	5. 25 8. 4 0	3. 95 4. 40	4. 40 7. 60	3. 85 3. 85	4. 35 7. 55	8. 60 4. 10	4. 10 7. 30	8.00 3.50	3. 50 6. 70
1915. JanJune July-Dec		4. 27 4. 43	3. 95 3. 50	5. 02 5. 20	5. 85 5. 80	7.00 7.05	5.05 5.00	6, 20 6, 25	4. 95 4. 90	6. 15 6. 20	4. 70 4. 65	5. 85 5. 90	4. 10 4. 05	5. 25 5. 30
1916, January February March April May June	3. 93 4. 12 5. 06	4. 00 4. 31 5. 25 5. 69 5. 75 5. 63	4. 33 4. 70 4. 83 5. 83 6. 02 6. 02	4.77 5.08 6.02 6.46 6.52 6.40	6. 65 6. 90 7. 40 8. 15 8. 55 8. 80	6. 85 7. 40 8. 15 8. 55 8. 80 8. 80	5. 85 6. 10 6. 35 7. 10 7. 50 7. 75	6. 05 6. 35 7. 10 7. 50 7. 75 7. 75	5. 75 6. 00 6. 25 7. 00 7. 40 7. 65	6. 00 6. 30 7. 05 7. 45 7. 70 7. 70	5. 50 5. 75 6. 10 6. 85 7. 25 7. 50	5. 70 6. 10 6. 85 7. 25 7. 50 7. 50	4. 90 5. 15 5. 50 6. 25 6. 65 6. 90	5. 10 5. 50 6. 25 6. 65 6. 90 6. 90
JanJune.	3. 56	5. 75	4. 33	6. 52	6, 65	8. 80	5. 85	7.75	5. 75	7.70	5. 50	7. 50	4. 90	6.90
July	4. 09 4. 09 5. 00 4. 87	5. 63 5. 50 5. 25 5. 88 5. 75 4. 87	6. 08 4. 89 4. 89 5. 77 5. 64 5. 02	6. 40 6. 27 6. 02 6. 65 6. 52 5. 64	8. 80 8. 15 7. 40 7. 90 8. 65 8. 00	8. 80 8. 90 8. 15 8. 65 8. 65 8. 65	7. 75 7. 10 6. 35 6. 85 7. 60 6. 95	7. 75 7. 75 7. 10 7. 60 7. 60 7. 60	7. 65 7. 00 6. 25 6. 75 7. 50 6. 85	7. 70 7. 70 7. 05 7. 55 7. 55 7. 55	7. 50 6. 85 6. 10 6. 60 7. 35 6. 70	7. 50 7. 50 6. 85 7. 35 7. 35 7. 35	6. 90 6. 25 5. 50 6. 00 6. 75 6. 10	6. 90 6. 90 6. 25 6. 75 6. 75 6. 75
July-Dec	4.09	5. 88	4.89	6. 65	7.40	8.80	6, 35	7. 75	6. 25	7. 70	6. 10	7. 50	5. 50	6.90
1917. January February March April May June	3. 87 4. 25 5. 00 5. 20	4. 62 4. 63 5. 19 5. 69 5. 52 5. 77	4. 75 4. 64 5. 02 5. 77 5. 95 5. 83	5. 39 5. 52 5. 96 6. 46 6. 27 6. 52	7.90 7.90 8.15 8.40	8. 00 8. 40 8. 40 9. 00 9. 00 9. 00	6. 85 6. 85 7. 10 7. 35	6. 95 7. 35 7. 35 7. 65 7. 65 7. 65	6. 75 6. 75 7. 00 7. 25 7. 50 7. 50	6. 90 7. 30 7. 30 7. 55 7. 55 7. 55	6. 60 6. 60 6. 85 7. 10	6. 70 7. 10 7. 10 7. 35 7. 35 7. 35	6, 00 6, 00 6, 25 6, 50	6. 10 6. 50 6. 50 6. 75 .6. 75 6. 75
JanJu ne.	3. 87	5. 77	4. 64	6. 52	7. 90	9. 00	6. 85	7. 65	6. 75	7. 55	6. 60	7. 35	6,00	6. 75
July	6. 02 6. 02 6. 02 6. 02	6. 02 6. 89 6. 05 6. 02 6. 02 6. 02	6. 23 7. 02 6. 90 6. 90 6. 90 5. 92	7. 02 7. 77 7. 02 6. 90 6. 90 6. 90	9. 00 9. 65 9. 90 9. 85 9. 85 9. 65	9. 40 9. 90 9. 90 9. 90 9. 85 9. 85	7. 65 8. 30 8. 55 8. 50 8. 50 8. 30	8. 05 8. 55 8. 55 8. 55 8. 50 8. 50	7. 50 8. 15 8. 40 8. 35 8. 35 8. 15	7. 95 8. 45 8. 45 8. 45 8. 40 8. 40	7. 35 8. 00 8. 25 8. 20 8. 20 8. 00	7. 60 8. 25 8. 25 8. 25 8. 20 8. 20	6. 75 7. 40 7. 55 7. 60 7. 60 7. 40	7.15 7.65 7.65 7.65 7.60 7.60
July-Dec	5. 23	6. 89	5. 92	7. 77	9.00	9. 90	7. 65	8. 55	7. 50	8. 45	7. 35	8. 25	6. 75	7.65

TABLE 134.—Sugar: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[The following kinds and grades have been included under the head of sugar: Brown, white, candied, caramel, chancaca (Peru), crystal cube, maple, muscovado, panela. The following have been excluded: "Candy" (meaning confectionery), confectionery, glucose, grape sugar, jaggery, molasses, and sirup. See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	Average. 1909-1913.	1915 (Prelim).	1916 (Prelim).	Country.	Average, 1909–1913.	1915 (Prelim).	1916 (Prelim).
From— Argentina Austria-Hungary Barbados Belgium Brazil British Guiana British India China Cuba Dominican Republic Dutch East Indies Egypt Fili France Germany	51, 657 308, 952 76, 568 212, 393 53, 222 29, 867 4, 019, 798 184, 703 2, 825, 111	118, 658 130, 235 260, 342 34, 474 32, 950 5, 731, 998 226, 634 3, 023, 765 58, 939 191, 661 222, 651	118, 663 25, 555 63, 533 269, 983	From— Guadeloupe	83,316 587,028 87,510	85, 814 504, 983 327, 486 485, 580 465, 199 77, 710 206, 415 113, 362 11, 292 1, 361, 825	744, 030 117, 078 10, 296

IMPORTS.

Not including receipts from Hawali, amounting to an average for five years 1909–1913 of 1,089,659,793 in 1915 to 1,212,380,888, and in 1916 to 1,160,018,550 pounds; and from Porto Rico, to an average for the five years 1909–1913 of 642,628,376, in 1916 to 638,101,561, and in 1916 to 907,373,407 pounds.

Table 135.—Sugar production 1 of undermentioned countries, campaigns of 1914-15, to 1916-17.

BEET SUGAR (RAW).

Country.	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	Country.	1914-15	1915–16	1916-17
NORTH AMERICA.	Short tons.	Short tons.	Short tons.	BUBOPE-continued.	Short tons.	Short tons.	Shert tons.
United States 1 Canada 1	722,064 15,657		82 0, 657	Italy Netherlands 1	184, 084 316, 455	198, 414 263, 826	
Total	737, 711	893,978		Roumania Russia Serbia	33, 259 1, 947, 486 2, 000		1,600,000
EUROPE.				SpainSweden	112, 231 169, 836	117, 334 140, 340	
Austria-Hungary Belgium	1, 766, 215 225, 064	1,212,530 124,501	804,679	Switzerland	4, 134	2,646	1,984
Denmark	168,652	138,008		Total	8,019,120	5,942,842	
France 1	333 , 954 2, 755 , 750	149, 802 1, 895, 966	205, 177	Grand total	8, 756, 831	6, 836, 820	

CANE SUGAR.

NORTH AMERICA. United States: Louisiana	Short ston. 243.000	Short tons. 137.500	Short tons. 304,700	EUROPE.	Short tons. 6,168	Short tons. 4,700	Short tons. 6.239
Texas 2	4,000 646,000	1,120 592,763	7,000 647,000	ASIA.			
Porto Rico St. Croix ³ Central America:	346, 490 4, 497			British India Formosa Japan.	2,757,440 222,000 60,000	315,000	2,941,120 450,939
British Hon- duras Costa Rica	840 2, 926	3.500		Java Philippine Islands	1,436,818	1,411,913	1,760,535
Guatemala Nicaragua Mexico ²	43, 108 7, 818 121, 000	49,261 10,000		Total	4,897,450	5,089,287	
West Indies: British—	ĺ			Egypt	83, 486		
Antigus Barbados Jamaka	10, 248 32, 932 26, 852	41,664	39, 536	Mauritius	275, 250 110, 176		
St. Christo- pher-Nevis St. Lucia				Africa			
Trinidad and Tobago	65,881	71,939 2,987,427		Total	557,912	456, 908	
Dominican Repub- lic * French—	119,000	140, 443	149, 548	Australia Fiji	275,381 106,794	179,789 95,831	336,000
Guadaloupe 3 Martinique 3				Total		275,619	
Total	4, 739, 099	4,549,791		Total cane sugar	11,663,442	10, 948, 808	
Argentina	370, 324 269, 000		92,669	Total beet and cane sugar	20, 420, 273	17, 885, 628	
British 3 Dutch 3 Paraguay	136, 891 13, 000 1, 694						
Peru	289, 729	277,780					
		3.2,023	• ***				

¹ Refined sugar.

^{*} Unofficial figures.

^{*} Exports.

TABLE 136.—Sugar: Total production of countries mentioned in Table 131, 1895-96 to 1915-16.

37		Production.		Year.	Production.			
Year.	Cane,1	Beet.	Total.	reat.	Cane.1	Beet.	Total.	
1895-96 1896-97 1897-98 1898-99 1899-1900 1900-1901 1901-2 1902-3 1903-4 1904-5 1905-8	Short tons, 3, 259, 000 3, 171, 000 3, 206, 000 3, 355, 000 4, 084, 000 6, 818, 000 6, 899, 000 7, 662, 000 7, 551, 000	Short tone. 4, 832, 000 5, 549, 000 6, 457, 000 6, 616, 000 6, 795, 000 6, 7743, 000 6, 454, 000 6, 835, 000 8, 090, 000	Short tons. 8, 091, 000 8, 720, 000 8, 663, 000 8, 971, 000 10, 879, 000 14, 551, 000 13, 236, 000 13, 744, 000 15, 641, 000		Short tons, 8, 365, 000 7, 926, 000 8, 654, 000 9, 423, 000 10, 275, 000 10, 908, 000 11, 270, 300 11, 316, 952 410, 948, 808	Short tons. 7, 587, 000 7, 390, 000 7, 350, 000 6, 991, 000 9, 042, 000 7, 072, 000 9, 599, 769 9, 433, 783 8, 756, 831 6, 836, 820	Short tons. 15, 952, 000 15, 316, 000 16, 004, 000 16, 414, 000 18, 582, 000 17, 347, 000 20, 518, 000 20, 518, 000 20, 703, 983 20, 073, 783 17, 885, 628	

TABLE 137.—Beet and sugar production of undermentioned countries.

			Beet	s used for s	ugar.		extraction igar.
Country and year.	Factories in opera- tion.	Sugar made, raw.	Area harvested.	Average yield per acre.	Quantity worked.	Percent- age of weight of beets used.	Per short ton of beets used.
Austria-Hungary: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13.	Number. 214 210 218	Short tons. 1, 549, 102 1, 180, 605 2, 093, 439	Acres. 918, 201 968, 771 1, 088, 088	Short tone. 11. 95 8. 18 13. 00	Short tons. 11, 038, 503 8, 623, 578 13, 911, 306	Per cent. 17.5 16.6 14.8	Pounds. 281 274 301
Belgium: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1913-14 Denmark: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1913-14	922 899 886 84 8 8	299, 035 258, 780 309, 308 249, 395 110, 792 128, 032 148, 447 179, 002	Area cultivated. 148, 858 145, 119 152, 918 129, 527	13. 41 11. 45 12. 47 11. 85	Produced. 1, 996, 977 1, 660, 872 1, 907, 358 1, 534, 311 817, 381 809, 616 1, 159, 369 1, 025, 140	P. c. of wt. of beets produced. 14. 97 15. 58 16. 22 16. 81 12. 80 17. 46	Per ton of beets produced. 299 312 324 325 271 316 256 349
France: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1913-14 1914-15 1915-16	239 220 213 206 69 64	Refined. 717, 033 512, 986 967, 440 790, 790 333, 953 149, 801	Area harvested. 549, 969 555, 575 566, 539 534, 230 242, 781 146, 305	10. 76 8. 09 12. 99 12. 24 11. 92 8. 65	Worked. 6, 426, 226 4, 669, 083 7, 960, 926 6, 539, 725 2, 892, 878 1, 265, 518	P. c. of wt. of beets used. 11. 80 11. 41 13. 15 12. 09 11. 54 11. 84	Per ton of beets used. 236 228 263 242 231 237
Germany: 1 1910-11. 1911-12. 1912-13. 1913-14.	354 342 342 341	Raw. 2, 770, 001 1, 551, 797 2, 901, 564 2, 885, 572	1, 180, 913 1, 247, 213 1, 353, 181 1, 316, 655	14. 72 8. 03 13. 56 14. 19	17, 360, 003 9, 987, 473 18, 344, 738 18, 672, 939	15. 96 15. 54 15. 82 15. 45	319 311 316 309

¹ The production of sugar in Germany, including refined from imported raw sugar, was 2,983,085 short tons in 1912-13 and 2,993,704 in 1913-14.

Prior to 1901-2 these figures include exports instead of production for British India.
 Excluding Costa Rica, Guatemala, and Salvador.
 Excluding Salvador and St. Lucia.
 Excluding Costa Rica, Guatemala, Salvador, Mexico, St. Christopher, St. Lucia, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Brazil, Dutch Guiana, Paraguay, Japan Portuguese East Africa, Reunion, and Australia.

TABLE 137.—Beet and sugar production of undermentioned countries—Continued.

			Beet	used for s	ugar.	Average e	xtraction gar,
Country and year.	Factories in opera- tion.	Sugar made, raw.	Area harvested.	A verage yield per acre.	Quantity worked.	Percent- age of weight of beets used.	Per short ton of beets used.
Italy: 1910-11. 1911-12. 1912-13.	Number. 35 37 37	Refined. 190, 901 174, 894 218, 628	A rea culti- vated, 124, 044 131, 260 133, 434	Short tons. 14. 92 13. 30 14. 40	Worked. 1, 698, 551 1, 621, 760 1, 879, 328	P.c. of wt. of beets used. 11.24 10.78 11.63	Per ton of beets used. 22: 210 23:
1913-14	27 27 27 27	219, 947 265, 401 315, 775 231, 073 316, 346 240, 828	152, 700 138, 554 137, 388 160, 189, 001 156, 251 139, 644	19.70 12.94 16.06 14.99 12.27 14.06 13.52	2, 994, 816 1, 678, 803 1, 896, 187 2, 228, 851 1, 705, 878 2, 193, 577 1, 755, 964	11.25 13.10 14.00 14.17 13.55 14.42 13.71	224 26 28 28 27) 28 274 28 274
Russia: 1910–11. 1911–12. 1912–13. 1913–14. 1914–15. 1915–16.	276 281 287 293 265 235	Raw. 2, 074, 410 2, 036, 990 1, 361, 842 1, 680, 893 1, 958, 975 1, 697, 356	1, 631, 188 1, 923, 539 1, 847, 313 1, 756, 160 1, 941, 122 1, 748, 466	8.9 7.8 6.4 7.7 7.4 7.0	14, 437, 305 14, 754, 312 11, 538, 078 13, 436, 058 13, 979, 662 12, 324, 612	14. 61 18. 84 11. 73 12. 51 14. 01 13. 77	29 27 23 25 28 27
Spain: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1912-14 1914-15 1915-16	33 32 33 31 (1) 31	68, 743 102, 859 171, 839 186, 680 112, 231 117, 334	(1) 90, 787 105, 213 146, 745 78, 642 (1)	(1)	532, 882 872, 834 1, 302, 871 1, 478, 114 813, 790 921, 013	12.90 11.78 11.33 12.62	25 23 26 25
1910-11	24 24 24	191, 713 140, 409 145, 462	86, 816 71, 790 66, 900	13. 56 14. 83 13. 95	1, 218, 166 908, 372 922, 083	15. 53 15. 27 15. 59	31 30 31
United States: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1913-14 1914-15 1915-16	61 66 73 71 60 67	Refined. 510, 172 599, 500 692, 556 733, 401 722, 054 874, 220 820, 657	Area har- vested. 398, 029 473, 877 555, 300 580, 006 483, 400 611, 301 665, 306	10. 17 10. 68 9. 41 9. 76 10. 9 10. 1 8. 90	4, 047, 292 5, 062, 333 5, 224, 377 5, 659, 462 5, 288, 500 6, 150, 293 5, 919, 673	12. 61 11. 84 13. 26 12. 96 13. 65 14. 21 13. 86	25 23 26 25 27 26

¹ No data,

TABLE 138.—Cane and sugar production of undermentioned countries.

Country and year.	Factories in opera-	Sugar	Cane	used for s	ugar.	Average extrac- tion of sugar.
county and you.	tion.	made.	Area harvested.	Average per acre.	Quentity worked.	Per ton 1 of cane used.
		_	Acres culti-			
Argentina: 1910–11	Number.	Short tons.	- pated.	Short tons.	Short tons.	Pounds.
1911–12	(1)	163, 701 198, 515	178,060 230,866 232,830	\id	{i}	
1912–13	` `´39	162,313	232, 830	\ \ \	2, 338, 594	139
1913-14	38	304,389	263,656	(1)	3, 451, 321	176
1914–15	37	370, 324	289,833	(1)	4,027,067	184
Anstralia:			Harvested.		Produced.	!
1910–11		253, 131	100,237	22.36	2,240,849	226
1911–12		210, 292	101,010	18.65	1,884,120	223
1912-13	50	144,776	84,279	15.09	1,271,358	228
Cuba:			Cultivated.	1]
1910-11	171	1,670,151	(2) (2)	(2)	14,736,981	227
1911–12 1912–13	172 171	2,142,420	1,340,139	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	20,679,593 25,137,684	207 218
1913-14.	170	2,737,264 2,891,281	1,334,070	(2)	25,644,949	226
ławaii:			Harvested.			1
1911–12	(h)	59 5,038	113,000	42.0	4,774,000	249
1912-18	(3)	546, 524	114,600	39.0	4,476,000	244
1912-14	`´46	612,000	112,700	45.0	5,094,000	240
1914-15	45	646,000	113,200	46.0	5,185,000	249
1915–16	(1)	592,763	115,419	42.0	4,859,424	244
apan:			Cultivated.			
1910-11	13	72,454	49,166	18.49 18.16	892,662 941,550	162
1911–12 1912–13	14 17	75, 797	52,153 51,293	18.16	879,624	161 157
1913–14.	16	68,867 72,613	53,300	17.91	954,758	152
ava (factory plantations):	,		Harvested.		-	į
1910–11	189	1,583,178	321,720	46.43	14,936,035	212
1911–12	193	1,424,657	336,021	40.71	13,679,962	208
1912–13	191	1,527,584	340,739	45.11	15,370,765	199
pain:			Cultivated.			
1910–11		22,371	11,666	21.9	258,138	173
1911-12		17,831	9,983	16.5	167,092	213 190
1912–13 1913–14	22	14,585 8,131	9,844 4,581	15,6 17.4	153, 707 79, 719	204
1914–15		6,168	7,361	(1)	,.15	(1
1915-16	16	4,700	2, 950	16. 59	48,937	194
			Harvested	ĺ		
Inited States (Louisiana):			for sugar.			
1911-12	188	352,874	310,000	19.0	5,887,292	120
1912–13 1913–14	126 153	153, 573 292, 698 242, 700	197,000 248,000	11.0 17.0	2,162,574 4,214,000	142 139
1914–15	149	242,008	218,000	17.0	3,199,000	152
1915–16	136	137,500	183,000	11.0	2,018,000	135
1916–17	150	303,900	221,000	18.0	4,072,000	149

¹ No data.

TABLE 139.—Sugar beets: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

		Area.		ĺ	Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA.	4		4	<i>m</i>	~	
United States	A cres. 483, 000	A cres. 611,000	A crea. 665, 308	Short tons. 5,585,000	Short tons. 6,511,000	Short tons. 6,228,00
anada	12,000	18,000	15,000	109,000	141,000	71,00
Total	495,000	629,000	680,308	5,694,000	6, 652, 000	6, 299, 00
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary:						
Austria	1 600,000	1 435,000	(2)	17,468,000	(2)	(2)
Hungary	439,000	266,000		4,425,000	2,743,000	
Croatia-Slavonia	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(*)
Bosnia-Herzegovina	(2)	(2)	(2)	(*)	(2)	(2)
Total Austria-Hungary .			(2)			(2)
Belgium	130,000	109,000	(2)	\(\begin{array}{c} \cdot \\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	(2)	(2)
Bulgaria	(2) (2)	79,000	(2) (2)		(2) (2)	∂ ≥5
Denmark		79,000	77,782	1,066,000	910,000	(2)
Ingland	2,000	2,000	151	(2)	² 1,663,000	(2)
rance	* 331,000	3 208,000	* 188,876.	* 4, 135, 000	* 1,663,000	2, 105,25
Permany	1,406,000	917,000 123,000	(2)	18,650,000	1,639,000	(2)
taly Vetherlands	101,000 156,000	140,000	123, 056 157, 262	1,488,000 2,198,000	1,889,000	1,486,28 2,115,09
Roumania	37,000	34,000	30, 411	248,000	204,000	2, 110,00
Russia:	1 000 000		4-5			i
Russia proper Poland	1,873,000	1,871,000	(2) (2) (2)	13,716,000	(2) (2) (2)	(2)
Northern Caucasia (Kuban)	10,000	11,000	\ 3	72,000	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	(2)
N OF GREEN CHARGESTRIC ELIDAN)	10,000	11,000	(•)	12,000	(•)	(3)
Total Russia, European.	1,883,000	1,882,000	1,635,000	13, 788, 000	(2)	(2) .
pain	79,000	(2)	134, 212	4 709,000	(2)	829,91
weden	80,000	79, 000	(2)	967,000	856,000	(²)´
witzerland	2,000	2,000	`1,977	30,000	28,000	`22,04
Total				1		
Grand total				·		l

TEA.

TABLE 140.—Tea: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

["Tea" includes tea leaves only and excludes dust, sweepings, and perbs maté. See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.)

Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913. (Pre- lim.).		1916 (pre- (lim.).	Country.	Aver- 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.).	1916 (pre. lim.).
From— British India Caylon China Dutch East Indies Formosa	267, 887 189, 016	Pounds. 319, 864 233, 474 105, 305 22, 816	Pounds. 204, 672	From— Japan. Singapere. Other countries. Total.	35, 823 2, 575 6, 991	Pounds. 41, 441 5, 174 728, 074	Pounds. 46, 278

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Galicia and Bukowina not included.
 No official statistics.
 Exclusive of invaded area, in which 115,900 acres were under sugar beets in 1914.
 Beets entered in factories up to December 31, 1914, for sugar campaign of 1914-15.

TEA-Continued.

TABLE 140.—Tea: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916—Continued. IMPORTS.

- Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1813.	1915 (pre- lim.).	1916 (pre- lim.).	Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.).	1916 (pre- lim.).
Into— Argentina. Austrialia. Austria-Hungary British India. British South Africa Canada Chile. China. Dutch East Indies. France.	Pounds, 3,890 35,442 3,424 8,002 5,544 37,927 3,505 18,890 6,742 2,806	Pounds, 3, 012 44, 295 12, 101 6, 664 42, 855 3, 017 24, 337 16, 441 6, 260	Pounds. 3,349 6,479 36,678 30,944 5,830	Into— Germany. Netherlands. New Zealand. Persia. Russia. Singapore. United Kingdom. United States. Other countries.	8,964 11,383 7,542 9,446 157,704 6,009 293,045	184,708	Pounds. 18, 045 172, 843 302, 416 104, 767
French Indo-China	3, 295	2,148		Total	756, 751	803,990	

¹ Imports from Java and Madura only.

TABLE 141.—Tea: Wholesale price per pound, on New York market, 1912-1917.

Date.	Foochow, fair to fine.		Formosa, fine to choice.		Japan, pan- fired.		India orange pekoe.		Ceyion orange pakee.	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune	Cts. 111 11	Cts. 223 21	Cts. 20 . 23	Cts. 39 39	Cts. 15 15	Cts. 21 18	Cts. 18 18	Cts. 25 25	Cts. 20 20	Cts. 26
1913. JanJune July-Dec	12 12	22 22	24 24	39 39	131 131	35 28	184 184	24 21	184 184	24 24
1914. Jan.–June July–Dec	12 121	22 22	24 23	39 39	12) 12)	30 38	181 181	21 27	18 <u>1</u> 18 <u>1</u>	24 26
1915. JanJune July-Dec	15 17	22 22	23 23	39 39	18 18	35 40	24	32	21 24	30 31
January February March April May June	18 18 18 18 181 171	21 21 21 21 21 21	23 23 23 23 23 23	39 39 39 39 39	18 18 16 <u>1</u> 16 16	18 18 35½ 35 35 35	24 26 26 27 27 27 28	26 28 30 30 30 30	24 26 27 27 27 27 28	28 28 30 30 30 30
JanJune	171	21	23	39	16	351	24	30	24	30
July	174 174 174 174 174 174	21 21 21 21 21 21 21	23 23 23 23 23 23 23	39 39 39 39 39	16 16 16 16 16 16	35 35 35 35 35 35 35	28 28 28 28 28 28 28	30 30 30 30 30 30 30	28 28 28 28 28 28 28	30 30 30 30 30 30
July-Dec	171	21	23	39	16	35	28	30	28	30
January February March April May June	171 181 181 19 231 221	21 21 21 26 26 26 26	23 23 23 23 28 25	39 39 39 39 39 60	16 16 17 18 22 21	35 40 40 40 40 40	28 291 34 39 46 42	30½ 35 42 47 47	28 29½ 34 39 51 46	30 35 42 53 53 43
JanJune	174	26	23	60	16	40	28	47	28	53
July	22½ 25 25 25 25 25 25 26½	27 27 27 27 27 27 27	40 40 40 40 40 40	60 60 60 60 60	21 23 24 24 24 24 24	35 40 40 40 40 40	40 39 41 40 40 40	43 45 45 45 45 45 45	41 43 43 40 40 40	50 50 50 50 50 50
July-Dec	221	27	40	60	21	40	39	45	40	50

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COFFEE.

TABLE 142.—Coffee: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[The item of coffee comprises unhulled and hulled, roasted, ground, or otherwise prepared, but imitation or "surrogate" coffee and chicory are excluded. See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	Average 1909–1913	1915 (prelim).	1916 (pre- lim).	Country.	A verage 1909–1913	1915 (prelim).	1916 (pre- lim).
From— Belgium Brazil. British India Colombia Costa Rica. Dutch East Indies. Guatemala. Halti. Jamaica Mexico.	Pounds. 33, 626 1, 672, 282 27, 780 104, 398 27, 515 54, 148 85, 951 61, 913 8, 203 48, 991	2, 256, 818 22, 441 149, 423 26, 918 117, 494 80, 655	172, 474	From— Netherlands	Pounds. 189, 288 19, 033 62, 830 4, 700 44, 251 111, 326 52, 022 2, 608, 347	20, 134 67, 162 47, 226 137, 967	78, 829 38, 279

IMPORTS.

Into-				Into-			
Argentina Austria-Hungary Belgium.	28, 125 128, 304 111, 738	36, 142	32,836	Norway	29, 309 26, 073 6, 000	21,012	51,0 69 9,801
British South Africa . Cuba Denmark	26, 445 24, 906 83, 102	32, 275 21, 215	28,905	Spain Sweden Switzerland	6,000 29,316 74,486 25,029	35, 219 29, 092	
Egypt. Finland. France.		18,701 28,820 305,409	16,640 15,388 337,308	United Kingdom United States Other countries	74, 486 25, 029 28, 581 907, 899 103, 377	32,723 1,228,762 121,190	
GermanyItalyNetherlands	399, 965 58, 278 283, 633		107,948	Total	2, 614, 596		

¹Chiefly from Porto Rico.

COFFEE-Continued.

Table 143.—Coffee: Wholesale price per pound, on the New York and New Orleans markets, 1912-1917.

						New	York.						N	lew O	rlean	5.
Date.	Rio	No. 7.		itos . 7.	Mo	cha.	Pad	ang.	Cuc	uta, hed.	Cord	dean loba, hed.	Rio	No. 7.		itos), 7.
	Low.	High.	Low.	Нідь.	Ľo¥.	H C	Low.	High.	Low.	ugh H	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	H
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cts. 131 14	C!s. 15 15 <u>1</u>	Cts. 141 143	Cts. 151 161	Cts. 184 184	Cts. 191 21	Cts. 20 191	Cts. 22 22 22	Cts. 151 151	Cts. 181 181	Cts. 171 151	Cts. 181 181	Cts. 131 124	Cts. 15 15 <u>1</u>	Cu. 141 141	Cts. 15 16
1913. JanJune July-Dec	94 84	14 114	107 10	154 134	18 18	21 20	19 21	22 23	12 111	174 174	15 15	18 161	Pt 9	14 11‡	111 101	15 12¶
1914. JanJune July-Dec	81 61	94	10) 81	111 122	171 191	21 30	21 21	28 24	111	18 18‡	15½ 12	161 171	84 61	94 10	104 81	113 13
1915. JanJune July-Dec	7 6§	81 71	84 74	9	21½ 23	30 30	21 21	234 23	111 1 11	15 1 15 1	11 101	141 131	7 6[8 1 8	81 7	94
1916. January. February March April My	74 8 9 9 9 9 9	8 0 0 0	7889	80000	25 19 19 19 19 19 19	27 27 22 22 22 23 22 23	224 221 221 25 26 26	23 23 26 26 26 26	11½ 12 12½ 13 13 13	15½ 16 16½ 16½ 16½ 16½	11½ 12 12½ 13 13 12½ 12	132 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14	71 81 91 91 91 81	81 91 91 91 10	8 8 9 9	85 85 95 10 94
JanJune	78	97	77	97	19	27	22}	26}	111	161	111	141	78	101	81	10
July	9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	91 10 91 91 91	100	94 101 11 101 101 101	19 181 181 181 181 181	201 201 20 20 20 20 20 20	25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	261 26 26 26 26 26 26 26	12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12	141 144 144 144 141 141	113 114 114 115 115 115	131 131 131 131 131 13	87 94 95 95	98 104 104 10 10 93 93	94 96 104 104 97 97	10 101 101 101 101 101
July-Dec	9	101	91	11	187	20}	25	261	12	147	113	131	87	101	91	107
January. February March April May June	100	10 10 97 10 10 10	10 10 91 91	101 101 101 101 101 101	181 181 181 181 181 19	20 20 20 20 20 22 22	25 25 24 24 24 24 26	26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26	121 123 114 114 114 114	147 147 148 14 14 141 141	121 122 11 11 11 11	131 141 131 12 12 12 12	10 94 94 94 10	101 10 91 101 101 101	103 97 98 91 103	10 10 9 10 10 10
JanJune	98	10}	93	103	183	22	24	26	111	147	11	147	93	105	94	10
July	9	9 8 8 8	91 91 91 9	91 91 91 91 91	19 19 19 21 21 21	22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22	26 24 24 25 25 25 25	26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26	111 111 101 101 101 101	14 14 13 12 12 12 13	11 101 101 101 101 101	13 13 113 114 114 114	94 94 88 77	99.88.88	9 9	100 10 90 91 91
July-Dec	71	91	82	93	19	221	24	26	107	14	101	13	77	94	9	101

OIL CAKE AND OIL-CAKE MEAL.

TABLE 144.—Oil cake and oil-cake meal: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916. [The class called here "oil cake and oil-cake meal" includes the edible cake and meal remaining after makeing oil from such products as cotton seed, flaxseed, peanuts, corn, etc. See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	A verage, 1909–1913.	1915 (prelim.).	1916 (prelim.)	Country.	Average, 1909–1913.	1915 (prelim.).	1916 (pre- lim.).
From— Argentina. Austria-Hungary. Belgium British India Canada. China. Denmark Egypt France. Germany.	Pounds. 42, 587 124, 873 155, 373 268, 648 51, 370 147, 468 15, 777 161, 624 476, 863 525, 108	335, 901 32, 730 164, 212 246, 183 244, 888	31, 707 113, 330 185, 731	Mexico Netherlands Russia United Kingdom United States Other countries	Pounds. 55, 115 33, 764 219, 819 1, 453, 413 161, 798 1, 704, 124 83, 814 5, 681, 538	32, 903 176, 460 25, 829 1, 458, 452 67, 112	32, 453 160, 630 3, 857 1951, 141

IMPORTS.

Into-				Into-			
Austria-Hungary Belgium	53,673			Japan Netherlands	189, 868 707, 116	197,822 598, 236 4	ái 241
Canada	7,752	22, 215	14,730	Norway		71, 160	72, 100
Denmark Dutch East Indies	1,002,329 2,509	1 636		Sweden	69, 352	38, 226	58, 447
FinlandFrance	288,968	8,344	127, 177 4, 150	United Kingdom Other countries	790,865 31,757	936, 681 6 19, 373	
GermanyItaly	1,686,416 10,550		885	Total	5, 812, 002	1,987,501	

¹ Java-Madura only.

ROSIN.

TABLE 145.—Rosin: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[For rosin, only the resinous substance known as "rosin" in the exports of the United States, is ten See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS. [000 omitted.]

Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.).	1916 (prelim.).	Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)
From— Austria-Hungary Bolgium France Germany Greece Netherlands		Pounds. 118,667 7,308 4,324	Pounds. 71,777	Other countries	20,073 655,520 1,568	Pounds. 29, 366 387, 194 7, 616 554, 475	Pounds. 22,822 515,848

IMPORTS.

Into— Argentina. Australia. Australia. Australia. Brazil. Brazil. British India. Canada Chile. Cuba. Denmark. Dutch East Indies. Finland. France. Germany.	32, 719 13, 724 75, 705 47, 163 36, 905 6, 171 25, 506 7, 410 4, 123 3, 236 15, 039 6, 027 2, 432 233, 100	45, 487 20, 709 40, 682 3, 914 27, 314 4, 200 5, 391 115, 104 5, 103 569	35,998 40,714 28,882 9,630 707	Into— Italy Japan Netherlands Notway Roumania Russia Serbia Spain Switzerland United Kingdom Other countries Total	34, 171 10, 073 73, 991 6, 732 5, 004 68, 429 1, 162 1, 827 4, 963 166, 075 18, 734	54, 541 17, 809 18, 471 13, 395 23, 628 422 7, 723 176, 360 14, 266 495, 088	43,918 30,182 11,074 58,109 7,852 184,985
	1	Imports	from Jav	a-Madura only.	a by G	009	e-

¹ Imports from Java-Madura only.

TURPENTINE.

TABLE 146.—Turpentine (spirits): International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

["Spirits of turpentine" includes only "spirits" or "oil" of turpentine and, for Russia, skinidar, it excludes crude turpentine, pitch, and, for Russia, terpentin. See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.).	1916 (pre- lim.).	Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 . (pre- lim.).	1916 (pre- lim.)
From— Belgium	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Spain	Gallons. 1,156	Gallons. 922	
France	2,594 460	1,466	991	United States	17,868 649	10,624 376	1,114 9,544
Netherlands	2,750 2,322	38 95	5	Total	28, 943	13, 521	

IMPORTS.

Into-				Into-			
Argentina	554 564 2, 581	524 791	500	New Zealand Russia Sweden	178 273 134	130 1 92	160
Belgium Canada Chile	1,932 1,175 198	1,113 114	1, 135	Switzerland. United Kingdom Other countries	466	395 7,446 911	455 5,937
Germany Italy Netherlands	9,368 910 3,998	968 1,155	754 6	Total	31, 200	13,739	

INDIA RUBBER.

TABLE 147.—India rubber: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[Figures for india rubber include "india rubber," so called, and caoutchouc, caucho, jebe (Peru), hule (Mez leo), borracha, massaranduba, mangabeira, manicoba, sorva and seringa (Brazil), gomelastick (Dutch East Indies), caura, ser nambi (Venezuela). See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	Aver- age, 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)	Country.	Aver- age. 1909- 1913.	1915 (pre- lim.)	1916 (pre- lim.)
From-			Pounds.	From—		Pounds.	
Angola	5,620			Kameran			
Belgium Kongo	7,755			Mexico	14, 262		
Belgium				Netherlands			
Bolivia				Peru	5,030	7,493	
Brazil	84,938	77,525	69,433	Senegal	1,087		
Ceylon	10.953			Singapore			'
Dutch East Indies				Nigeria	3,054		
Ecuador	1,040	561		Negri Sembilan		18,316	
France		5,148	6, 357	Perak	7,313	37,325	
French Guiana	3.937	l		Selangor	13,736	43,053	l
French Kongo	3,797			Venezuela	772	310	
Germany				Other countries	28,936	10, 418	
Gold Coast							
vorv coast				Total	289.064	256, 708	

IMPORTS.

Into-				Into-			
Austria-HungaryBelgiumCanadaFrance	25, 891 3, 945 32, 704	9, 731 29, 317	986, 797 39, 122	Russia United Kingdom United States Other countries		29,761 33,760 221,482 6,940	17,804 59,941 270,090
Germany Italy Netherlands	42,004 5,381 10,822	11,833 6,909	11,728	Total	302,319	349, 733	ogle

SILK

Table 148.—Production of raw silk in undermentioned countries, 1912-1916.

[Estimates of the Silk Merchants' Union of Lyons, France.]

Country.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
Western Europe:	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
Italy	9,050,000	7,804,000	8,950,000	6,349,000	7, 963, 000
France.		772,000	893,000	287,000	485,000
Spain	172,000	181,000	161,000	121,000	198,000
Spain	410,000	331,000	388,000	187,000	187,000
Hungary	238,000	271,000	278,000	143,000	143,000
Total	10,983,000	9,359,000	10,670,000	7,087,000	8, 975, 000
Levant and Central Asia:	. 				
Broussa and Anatolia		1,025,000	761,000	386,000	386, 000
Syria and Cyprus	882,000	1,080,000	948,000	772,000	772,000
Other Provinces of Asiatic Turkey	254,000	298,000	242,000	143,000	143,000
Turkey in Europe 1		187,000	132,000	66,000	66,000
Saloniki and Adrianople	573,000				• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Roumania)	320,000	298,000	386,000	220,000	990 000
Greece, Saloniki, and Crete	110,000	408,000	309,000	243,000	220,000 243,000
Caucasus	871,000	849,000	794,000	276,000	276,000
Persia (exports)	500,000	463,000	176,000	77,000	77,000
Turkestan (exports)	569,000	496,000	187,000	110,000	110,000
Total	4, 923, 000	5,104,000	3, 935, 000	2,293,000	2,293,000
Far East:					
China	Ĭ		1	!	
Exports from Shanghai		12,709,000	9,116,000	12,037,000	10,340,000
Exports from Canton	4, 983, 000	6,063,000	4,233,000	4,068,000	5, 346, 000
Japan-					
Exports from Yokohama	23,957,000	26, 720,000	20,922,000	26, 466, 000	29, 431, 000
British India-					
Exports from Bengal and Cashmere Indo-China—	370,000	249,000	75,000	192,000	254,000
	1	i	i		
Exports from Saigon, Haiphong, etc.	33,000	26,000	35,000	29,000	7,000
Total	43, 541, 000	45, 767, 000	34, 381, 000	42,792,000	45,378,000
	,,	=	=======================================	-,,	=======================================
Grand total	50 447 000	60, 230, 000	48, 986, 000	52, 172, 000	56,647,000

¹ Prior to 1913 Turkey in Europe included the Vilayet of Saloniki, which now belongs to Greece.

TABLE 149.—Total production of raw silk in countries mentioned in Table 148, 1900-1916.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1900	Pounds. 40,724,000 42,393,000 41,368,000 39,981,000 45,195,000 41,513,000	1906. 1907. 1908. 1909. 1910.		1912	Pounds, 59, 447, 900 60, 230, 809 48, 986, 600 52, 172, 000 56, 647, 000

WOOD PULP.

TABLE 150.—Wood pulp: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[All kinds of pulp from wood have been taken for this item, but no pulp made from other fibrous substances. See "General note," Table 85.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	A verage, 1909–1913.	1915 (prelim.).	1916 (prelim.).	Country.	A verage, 1909–1913.	1915 (prelim.).	1916 (prelim.).
From— Austria-Hungary Belgium Canada Finland Germany Norway Russia	Pounds. 205, 364 80, 647 606, 203 236, 881 384, 709 1, 437, 078 52, 735	728, 341 221, 420 1, 618, 363	Pounds. 1,117,796 223,139 1,522,991	From— Sweden Switzerland United States Other countries Total	Pounds. 1, 822, 023 13, 072 24, 309 75, 486 4, 938, 507	22,877 40,575	

IMPORTS.

Into— Argentina. Austria-Hungary. Belgium Denmark France. Germany Italy Japan Portugal	52,016 13,366: 291,254 110,866 836,899 112,660 179,267 79,260 18,662	623, 620 135, 084 119, 307	798, 674	Into— Russia Spain Sweden Switzerland United Kingdom United States Other countries Total	21,059 1,891,006	21,839 2,131,945 1,145,717 170,133	25, 704 1, 474, 054 1, 367, 529
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LIVE STOCK, 1917, AND MISCELLANEOUS DATA.

FARM ANIMALS AND THEIR PRODUCTS.

TABLE 151.—Live stock in principal and other countries.

[Latest census or other official figures available, with comparison for earlier years. Census returns are in italics; other official figures are in roman type.]

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

Country.	Date.	Cattle.	Buffa- loes.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses.	Mules.	A 5866.
United States: On farms	Jan. · 1, 1918 Jan. 1, 1917 Jan. 1, 1916 Jan. 1, 1915 Apr. 15, 1910	Thou-sand. 63,617 61,920 58,329 61,804	Thou-	Thou-sand. 67, 453 67, 766 64, 618 68, 188	Thou-sand. 48, 483 48, 625 49, 956 58, 448	Thou-sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) (3) (1) (1)	Thou-sand. 21, 126 21, 159 21, 196 19, 833	Thou-sand- 4,639 4,593 4,479 4,210	Thou-sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)
Not on farms Alaska (on farms and	A pr. 15, 1910	1,879		1,288	5 2 , 448 391	115	3,185	270	17
not on farms)	Jan. 1,1910	1	2 22	(8)	(3)	(9)	8	(8)	(9)
Hawaii (on farms and not on farms) Porto Rico (on farms	Apr. 15, 1910	149		81	77	5	#8	9	5
and not on farms)	Apr. 15, 1910 Dec. 31, 1912 Sept., 1910 Sept., 1905 Sept., 1900 Sept., 1805	316 1,107 1,128 1,067 993 1,121		108 114 109 91 82 84	6 8,338 9,042 9,063 6,724 7,892	49 3,772 3,990 4,030 8,563 3,545	58 221 230 221 202 217	192 192 174 147 142	1 271 276 278 263 287
Argentina	Sept., 1895 June 1,1914 Dec. 31,1913 May 1,1908 May, 1895 1888	25,867 80,798 29,124 21,708 21,962		2,901 8,197 1,404 653 394	45, 225 81, 485 67, 384 74, 380 68, 706	4,325 4,564 3,947 2,749 1,894	8,384 9,366 7,538 4,447 4,234	565 584 465 285	290 345 285 198
Australia	Dec. 31, 1916 Dec. 31, 1915 Dec. 31, 1914 Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1906 Dec. 31, 1900 Dec. 31, 1895	9,924 11,051 11,745 8,528 8,640 11,767		760 862 1,026 1,015 960 828	69,706 78,600 92,047 74,541 70,608 90,690	314 (1) (1) (1)	2,395 2,521 2,166 1,7/5 1,610 1,680	(1)	8 / (1) 5 (1) (1) (1) (1)
Austria-Hungary:	´1890⊦	10,300		891	97,881	(1)	1,522	(1)	(1)
Austria	Dec. \$1,1910 Dec. \$1,1900 Dec. \$1,1890 Dec. \$1,1880	9, 159 9, 511 8, 644 8, 584	(3)	6,458 4,683 3,550 8,788	2,488 2,681 3,187 3,841	1,257 1,020 1,036 1,007	1,808 1,716 1,548 1,468	#1 #0 17	
Hungary	Apr., 1913 Feb. \$8,1911 Nov. \$0,1895 1884	5.	184 859 879 1 35	6,825 6,416 6,447 4,804 1,164	6,560 7,698 7,587 10,595	269 331 237 270	2,005 8,001 1,997 1,749 850	1	3
Croatia-Slavonia	Mar. 24, 1911 Dec. 31, 1895		135 909	1,164 883	850 598	96 22	850 811		<u>;</u>
Bosnia - Herzego- vina.	Oct. 10\ Nov. 10\ 1910	1,309	1	567	2,499	1,393	223	(P)	8
Belgium	Apr. 32 May 32 Dec. 31, 1913 Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1895 Dec. 31, 1880	1,416 1,849 1,880 1,481 1,583	1	068 1,412 1,494 1,163 646	3,231 (1) 185 236 365	1,447 (1) 818 841 (1)	267 267 817 272 272	(¹)	1 7
Brazil	1916	28,	962	17, 329	7, 205	6,920	6,065	8,	222
Bulgaria	1918-18 Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1905 Dec. 31, 1900 Dec. 31, 1898	1,608 1,696 1,596 1,428	705 415 477 431 848	18,399 527 465 368 462	10,663 8,638 8,131 7,015 6,868	10,049 1,459 1,384 1,406 1,264	7,889 478 638 495 344	3, 18 18 9 8	117 188 104 88

¹ No official statistics.

² Reindeer.

⁴ Less than 500.

⁴ Dec. 31, 1913.

TABLE 151.—Live stock in principal and other countries—Continued.

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES-Continued.

Country.	Date.	Cattle.	Buffa- loes.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses.	Mules.	A sses.
		Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-
Canada	June 30, 1917	5,968		2,514	2,009	(;)	3,035	13	3.2
	June 30, 1916 June 30, 1915	5,917 6,066		2,815 8,112	1,965 2,039	8	2,991 2,996	8	83
	June 1,1911	6,555		3.610	2.175	(1)	2 , 596	(1)	(1)
	June 31, 1901 1891	5 .576		2,354	2.510	(3)	1,577	83	(2)
	1881	4, 121 3, 515		1,734 1,208	2,564 3,049		1,471	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	8
Denmark	Fcb. 1, 1917	8,4.5		1.981	270	(1)	538	(1)	(1)
	Feb. 29, 1916 May 15, 1915	2, 90		1,953 1,919	255 533	{ } { }	515 526	(1)	55
	July 15.1914	2,417		2.1 97	515		568	(1)	8
	July 15, 1909	2,254		1,408	727	41 40 39	535	(1)	(1)
	July 15, 1905 July 15, 1898	1 1,840		1,457	877	39 38	487	83	(1)
Finland	1910	1,745	2 120	1,168 418	1,074 1,309	. 18	249 361	(1)	213
1 IIII MIC	1905	1,481	2 142	220	938	6	324	(1)	(1)
	1900 1890		2 119 2 86	211 194	985 1,054	8 15	311 293	(1)	(1)
France	*July 1.1917	12, 443	- 80	4,200	10,587		2,283	150	325
	³ Dec. 31, 1916	12,342		4.362	10,845	1,177	2,246	148	327
'	³ Dec. 31, 1915 ³ Dec. 31, 1914	12,514		4,916	12,379	1,230 1,317	2, 156	144 152	324 337
	Dec. 81, 1913	12,668 14,807		5,926 7,048	14,038 16,213	1,453	2, 105 3, 231	103	360
	Dec. 31, 1910	14,533		6,900	17, 111	1,418	3,198	193	361
	Dec. 31, 1900 Nov. 30, 1892			6,740	20, 180	1,558 1,845	2,903 2,795	205 217	356
	188	13,700 12,997		7,421	23,809	1,851	2,638	251	296
	1861	12,812		6,038	2 9,530	1,796	2,914	(1)	(1)
Germany	Dec. 1,1916 Dec. 1,1914	20,317		17,287	5,073	3,438 3,538	4 3, 542	(3)	(¹)
	Dec. 1, 1915	21,829		2 5,341 2 5,6 59	5,471 5,5 8 1	3,548	4 3, 435 3, 227	E	(1)
	Dec. 8, 1912			21,924	5,805	3,410	4, 583	1:	5
	Dec. 2,1907	20,631		82, 147	5,805 7,704	3,410 3,534	4,340	1.	
	Dec. 1,1904			18,921	7,907	5,550	4,267	(1)	(1)
	Dec. 1,1900			16,807	9,693	3,267	4, 195	- 8	
	Dec. 1,1897			14,275	10,867	(1)	4,038	(')	(:)
	Dec. 1,1892 Jan. 10,1883			12,174 9,206	13,590 19,190	3,092 3,641	3,856	10	
Greece	Jan. 10, 188.	15,787 300	(1)	227	3,547	2,638	3,523 149	80	(1) 133
India:		1				1	1		
British	1914-15 1913-14	128,310	19,025	833	23,016 23,092 22,922	33, 338	1,653	71 86	1, 5 12 1, 501
	1910-11	\$125,042 \$94,664	616,628	1 53	22,922	30, 673 28, 518	1,643 1,524	110	1, 342
	1904-5	677, 111	612,871	(1)	17,552	24,803	1,524 1,278	54	1, 177
	1899-1900	72,666	612, 120	{: }	17,805 17,260	19,005 15,272	1,308	1,	227
37-41 O4-4 A	1894-95		11,826	(1)			1, 134		102
Native States •	1913-14 1909-10	12, 236 10, 391	1,765	33333) ?	306 129	175 141		181 155
	1904–5	8,178	1,559 1,347	(i)	6,	129 318	92	1	129
	1900-1		1,228			538	85		115
Italy	1914		646	2,722		824		2, 235	
	Mar. 10, 1908 Feb. 13, 1881	6, 199 4, 772	19	2,508 1,164	11,163 8 ,596	2,715 2,016	956	388 294	850 674
Japanese Empire:	Fee. 10, 1001	4,778	"	1, 104	0,000	2,010	658	234	0,4
Japan	Dec. 31, 1915	1,388	(1)	333	8	97	1,580	(e)	G)
	Dec. 31, 1914	1,387	K}	332 310	8	95 89	1,579 1,582	8	ζį
	Dec. 31, 1913 Dec. 31, 1910	1,389	\\ \\ \	279	3	92	1,565	KS	λ3
	Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1905 Dec. 31, 1900	1,384 1,168 1,261	<u> </u>	228	4	72	1,565 1,368	🔥	ζį)
Chosen (Korea)	Dec. 31, 1900 Dec. 31, 1914	1,261		181 758	3	60 12	1,542 53	(1)	(i)
OHORGH (TOLOR)	Dec. 31, 1913		(4)	761		10	51	1.	
	Dec. 81, 1910	704	(6)	566		7	40	()	(1)
Formosa (Taiwan)				1,319	(7)	117	(7)		
	Dec. 31, 1914	2	398	1,313	י כיס ו	125	ו (יי)		
Mexico	Dec. 31, 1914 Dec. 31, 1905 June 30, 1908	(9)	398 341	1,313 1,018 616	3,484	125 108 4,206	(}	334	288

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No official statistics,
 Reindeer.
 Excludes invaded area.
 Including army horses.

<sup>Including young buffaloes.
Not including young buffaloes.
Less than 500.</sup>

TABLE 151.—Live stock in principal and other countries—Continued.

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES-Continued.

Country.	Date.	Cattle.	Buffa- loes.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses.	Mules.	Asses.
N-41-1-1-	W	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou- sand.	Thou-	Thou- sand.	Thou-
Netherlands	Mar. } 1917	2,304		1, 185	521	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
	May, 1915 June, 1913	2,390 2,097		1,487	(1) 842	(1) 232	(¹) 334	{1} (1)	(3)
	M 19 20	8,087		1,350 1,260	889	224	227	(1)	(1)
	June 20] 1910 Dec. 31, 1904	1,691		862	607	166	295	(1)	
	Dec. 31, 1900	1,656		747	771	180	205	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	(1)
New Zealand	Dec. 31, 1890 Jan. 31, 1917	1,533 2,503		579 278	819 24,753	165	273 367	(1)	(1)
·	Jan. 31, 1916	2,417 2,020	•••••	298 349	24,788	17 8	371 404	(3) (8)	(*)
	Apr. 1,1911 Apr. 30,1911	2,020		349	23,998	°.	404	(•)	(*)
	Apr. 30, 1905 Oct. 1905	1,811		250	19, 131		327.	(3)	(3)
	Apr. 30, 1900				19,355	(1)			
•	Oct., 1900 Apr., 1895	1,257		251	19,827	(1) (1) (1)	266	(8)	(3)
	1895 1891	1,048 832		240	18,128	(ن)	237 \$11	(*)	(2)
Norway	Sept. 30, 1916	1.119	(1)	509 221	1,281	230	189	(a) (a) (1)	(2) (2) (1)
	Sept. 30, 1915 Sept. 30, 1914	1,121 1,146	83	209 228	1,281 1,330 1,327 1,308	240 237	186 182	(1)	<u>}</u> ;{
	Sept. 30, 1910	1.134	(1)	334	1,308	298	168	715) <i>}</i> {
	Sept. 30, 1907 1900	1,089 950	1109	307 165	1,591 999	296 215	164 173	83	33
Paraguay	1890	1,006	4 170	121	1,418 600	272	151	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	\ \i\
rataguay	1915 1902	5,219 2,761 2,283		61 57	228	87 50	478 218	17 9	18
	18 5 9 1886	2,283 730		2.1 1.8	214 32	32 11	183	5	
	1877	201		18	7		62 21	8 1	1
Philippine Islands	Dec. 31, 1916 Dec. 31, 1915	534.	1,222	2,521	129	644	223	a	a
	Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1908	270	757	1,682	94	441	143	() () ()	(1)
Portugal	Oct., 1908	128 703	(1) (1)	1,179	30 3 073	124 1,034	144 88	(¹) 58	(1)
1	1870	625		971	2 ,977	937	87	51	144 188
Roumania	April, 1916 1911	2,	938 667	1,382 1,021	7,811 5,269	301 187	1, 219 825	(8)	12
	1907		667 585	1,124	0,105	191	808	5	5
	Dec., 1900 1890	2,515		1,709	5,655	233	864	1	
	1884	2,	5 20 3 76	926 886	5,002 4,655	210 245	595 533		}
Russian Empire:	. /101/								
Russia, European	1914	32,704 31,974	(1) 1605	11,581 13,458	37,240 41,426	(1) 873	22,529 22,771	(1)	(¹) 7
	11910	31,974 31,315	4 462	12.049	41, 426 40, 734	957	21,868	5 1	2
	1900 1890	31,661 25,528	(1)	11,761 9,554 9,265	47,628 46,052	1,017	19, 744 19, 779	(8)	(8)
Poland	1881 1914	22, 122 2, 014	(3)	9,265 452	45,522 565	1, 157	15,504 1,098	SERBERT	
	1913	2.011	(•)	491	683	9	1,116	(4)	<u>}•</u> }
Ì	sum- 1910 mer. 1900	2,301		612 1,402	1,050 2,823	9 11	1,222 1,392	8	3
	1890	2,823 3,013 5,055	(2)	1,499 706	2,823 3,755 3,375	(1)	1,207	<u>(*)</u>	(3)
Russia, Asiatic (33	'***	0,000	()	'00	0,010	10	1,037	(4)	(4)
governments of the Caucasus,	1 1	l							
Central Asia,								/**	
and Siberia)	1914	17,334 18,404	87	2,962 2,895	84, 468 88, 696	(1) 4,791 <i>631</i>	11,346 11,959	(1)	(1)
Serbia	Dec. 31,1910 Dec. 31,1905	957 963	7	866 908	3,819	631 510	153 174	1,	\ `´ !
Spain	1916	3,071	ļi	2.814	8, 160 16, 012	8,207	489	913	839
	1914 <i>1915</i>	3,071 2,743 2,879		2,810 8,710		8, 207 8, 265 5, 394 8, 216	525	984	841 841
	Dec. 31, 1910	2,369		2, 424	16,441 15,117	8,216	542 520	948 886	844 868
	Dec. 31, 1906 1891	2, 497 2, 218		2,080 1,928	13,481 13,350	2, 440 2, 534	440 397	802 768	744 754

¹ No official statistics.
² Reindeer.

<sup>Less than 500.
Dec. 31, 1913.</sup>

TABLE 151.—Live stock in principal and other countries—Continued.

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES-Continued.

Country.	Date.	Cattle.	Buffa- loes.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses	. Mules.	A3966.
8weden	June 1, 1916 Dec. 31, 1914 Dec. 31, 1913 Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1905 1900 1890 Apr. 19, 1916 Apr. 21, 1911 Apr. 20, 1906	Thou-sand. 2,913 2,761 2,721 2,748 2,550 2,583 2,399 1,616 1,445 1,498	Thou-sand. 2 273 2 226 2 232 2 288	Thou-sand. 1,065 1,015 968 957 830 806 645 544 570 549	Thou-sand. 1, 198 993 988 1,004 1,074 1,261 1,351 172 161 210	Thou-sand. 132 77 71 69 67 80 87 358 541 362	Thou-sand. 701 603 596 587 555 533 487 187 187	Thou-sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) (3) (1) (5) (5) (7) (8) (8) (8)	Thou- sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) (1) (3) (4) (1) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (8)
Turkey, European and Asiatic	A pr. 19, 1901 1913	1,540 2.398	164	<i>555</i> 31	219 (1)	(1)	(1)	<i>5</i>	o a
Union of South Africa.	1912 1910 1905 Dec. 31, 1915 Dec. 31, 1913 May 7, 1911 1904	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) (3) (4) (5),797 (5),600	=======	73 175 196 (1) (1) 1,088 679	27, 095 27, 662 23, 614 31, 434 35, 711 30, 657 16, 523	20, 269 21, 283 16, 411 8, 918 11, 521 11, 763 9, 771	(1) (2) (2) (3) (3) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	(1) (2) (3) (1) (3) (3) (3) (4)
United Kingdom: Great Britain	June 4, 1917 June 5, 1916 June 4, 1915 June 4, 1914 June 4, 1910 June 4, 1900 June 4, 1890 June 4, 1880	7, 435 7, 442 7, 288 7, 093 6, 964 7, 037 6, 805 6, 509		2,051 2,315 2,579 2,634 2,234 2,350 2,382 2,744	24,026 24,990 24,598 24,286 23,931 27,103 26,592 27,272	33333333	1,583 1,567 1,213 1,296 1,324 1,545 1,500 1,432	33333333	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Ireland	June 1,1917 June 1,1916 June 1,1915 June 1,1914 June 1,1913 June 1,1900 June 1,1890	5,912 4,907 4,970 4,844 5,052 4,933 4,689 4,609 4,241		2,001 948 1,290 1,205 1,306 1,060 1,200 1,269 1,570	26,619 3,744 3,764 3,600 3,601 3,621 3,980 4,387 4,324	269 293 243 242 246 243 306 327	1, 421 598 599 561 619 614 613 567 585	(1) 25 28 29 31 30 31 30	229 230 227 245 243 241 242 213
Isle of Man and Channel Is-	June 1,1880	3,921	•••••	850	3,561	266	557	25	
lands Uruguay	June 5, 1916 1916 1908 1900 1860	40 7,803 8,195 6,827 5,632		11 180 94 6	78 26, 286 18,609 1,990	(1) 20 20 5	556 561 518		(i)

¹ No official statistics

² Reindeer.

*TABLE 151.—Live stock in principal and other countries.—Continued.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

Country.	Date.	Cattle.	Buffa- loes.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses.	Mules.	Asses.
		Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou-	Thou- sand.	Thou-
Azores and Madeira	1900	89		93	87	38	2	3	9
Basutoland	1911		37	(1)	1,569	(1)	88	(1)	(1)
Bechuanal and Proc-		1 7	••	· · ·	.,,550	` ` '	- ~	(-)	(-)
tcctorate	1911	3:	24	(1)	30	58		4	
Bolivia	1913		1		1,1	750			
British Guiana	Mar. 31,1916	98		14	22	15	1	2	6
Ceylon	1915		501	70	90	183	4	(1)	(1)
Chile	Dec. 31,1914	1,944	1	229	4,545		458	`42	
Colombia	1915	3,035		711		34	526	201	139
Costa Rica	1915	333		63	(3)	(2)	52	(*)	(3)
Cuba	Dec. 31,1916	3,962		(1)	(1) 282	(3) (1)	750	` 58	` ′ 8
Cyprus	Mar. 31,1916	63	-	` 35	282	228	70		
Dutch East Indies:		i	l Fui		/m	~			
Java and Madura.	1913		786	(1)	(1)	(1)	274	(1)	(1)
Other Possessions Dutch Guiana	1905	449	447	(1)	(1)	(1)	119	(י)	(1)
East Africa Protec-	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• ••••	-					• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • • • • •
torate	Mar. 31,1915	900	(1)	4	6,555	4,020	2	(1)	(1)
Egypt	1916	493	`515	9	688	263	34	17	526
Falkland Islands	1915	8		(,)	691	83	4	(1)	(1)
Farce Islands Fiji	1914 1915	59		(4)	112	(12	1 7	• • • • • • • • •	· • • • • • • •
French Guiana	1913	400		(1)	150	140	3	(1)	(1)
French Indo-China:		1		()		l	ı "	(-)	(-)
Annam	1914	215	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cochin-China	1914	109	242	709			(4)	(1)	(1)
Gambia	1907		3	(3)	(3)	(;}	4	(1)	(3)
Guam	1913		6				(1)	(1)	(1)
Guatemala	Dec. 31,1915		1	103	383	57	116		
German East Africa	1913		994	6	6,440	25	(2)	(2)	25
German S. W. Africa	1913	2	06	8	555	517	16	1	4
Honduras	1914	489		180	6	23	68	2	5
Iceland	1914	25			585	1	47		
Jamaica	1916	115			11	250	4	7	21
Luxemburg	Dec. 31,1913	108		137	5	10	19	(1)	(1)
Madagascar	Dec. 31,1915		11 6,606	666	299	174	3	1	
Malta	Mar. 31,1916		5	4	19	20		9	
Mauritius	1913	41	1	17	8	3 7	2		(1)
Morocco:	1017.10	0.00	i		4 051				
Western Eastern	1915–16 1915–16	856 22		(1)	4,051 664	1,226 285	,,97	42	(1)
Newfoundland	1911	39		27	98	77	(1),,	83	8
Nicaragua	1908	252		12	(8)	1	14 28	`'8	1
Nyasaland Protector-			i	l	''	l			_
ate	1916		32	24	30	131	(8)	(8)	(8)
Panama	1916	200		30		5	15	2	
Rhodesia	1911	5	00		300	602		\$0	
Salvador	1906	284		423	21	(1)	74	(1)	(¹)
Siam	Jan. 1,1916	2,337	2,120	(')	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	<u></u>	105	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	
Swaziland	1914 Wan 21 1016	40	00	113	35	18	2		
	Mar. 31,1916		00	, 9		50	1	2	
Trinidad and Tobago.	1913 1914	65	(1)	(1)	(1)	(¹) ₆	(t) 5	(¹) 5	{;}
Tunis	Apr. 30, 1916	240		10	1,148	522	81	15	(,)
Uganda Protectorate	1914		45	1		78	(4)	(4)	(4)
Venezuela	1912		1	1,618	177	1,667	191	80	313

¹ No official statistics.

¹ Lees than 500.

TABLE 152.—Hides and skins: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[This table gives the classification as found in the original returns, and the summary statements for "AB countries" represent the total for each class only so far as it is disclosed in the original returns. The following kinds are included: Alligator, buffalo, calf, camel, cattle, deer, goat and kid, horse and cott, kangaroo, mule and ass, sheep and lamb, and all other kinds except furs, bird skins, sheepakins with wool on, skins of rabbits and hares, and tanned or partly tanned hides and skins. Number of pounds computed from stated number of hides and skins.]

General Note.—Substantially the international trade of the world. It should not be expected that the world export and import totals for any year will agree. Among sources of disagreement are these:

(1) Different periods of time covered in the "year" of the various countries; (2) imports received in year subsequent to year of export; (3) want of uniformity in classification of goods among countries; (4) different practices of recording reexported goods; (6) opposite methods of treating free ports; (7) clerical errors, which, it may be assumed, are not infrequent.

The exports given are domestic exports, and the imports given are imports for consumption as far as it is feasible and consistent so to express the facts. While there are some inevitable omissions, on the other hand there are some duplications because of reshipments that do not appear as such in official reports. For the United Kingdom, import figures refer to imports for consumption, when available, otherwise total imports, less exports, of "foreign and colonial merchandise." Figures for the United States include Alaska, Porto Rico, and Hawaii.

EXPORTS.

EXPORTS. [000 omitted.]

Exporting country and classification.	Average, 1909-1913.	1915 (Prelim.)	1916 (Prelim.)	Exporting country and classification.	Average, 1909–1913.	1915 (Prelim.)	1916. (Prelim.)
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.		Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
Argentina:			[Egypt:			
Cattle, dried	66, 957	56, 391	47,507	Cattle and camel.	7,799	5, 100	4,667
Cattle, salted	145, 901	141,641	171,608	_ Sheep and goat	2,955	2,573	2,887
Deer		6	3	France:			
Goat	4,577	5, 203	5, 639	Calf	80,608	10,050	6,905
Horse, dried	3,921	4,782	7, 221	Goat	5,644	900	618
Horse, salted	411	835	1,487	Kid	2,062	166	11
Kid	1,052	342	1,443	Lamb	1,815	1, 284	598
Sheep and lamb	71,129	50,705	36,908	Sheep	14,574	1,437	1,697
Austria-Hungary:			į.	Unclassified	76, 339	30, 180	15, 205
Calf, dried	3,373			Germany:		· ·	1
Calf, green	20,823			Calf	23,208		
Cattle, dried	7 318			Cattle	105.306		
Cattle, green	30,639			Goat	2,787		
Goat	2 , 168			Horse	16.364		
Horse, dried	1,306			Sheep Unclassified	3,948		
Horse, green	8,839		! ·	Unclassified	760		
Kid	1.189		l'	Italy:	ļ		
Lamb	3.537			Calf	5,739	423	49
Sheep	8, 825			Cattle	36 , 561	16,570	8,623
Unclassified	1,252	l		Goat	854	192	1,580
Belgium:	_	1		Kid	800	62	1,373
Unclassified	117, 213			Lamb	2, 298	9	254
Brazil:	· ·			Sheep	873	l 1	1
Cattle, dried	10,667	34, 595	33,732	Sheep Unclassified	1,312	1,824	130
Cattle, green	34, 817	47, 153	66,692	Mexico:	-,	-,	
Deer		305	386	Alligator	202		
Goat		6,873	5,318	Cattle	83,753		
Sheep	1,243	2,796	2,394	Deer	707		
Sheep Unclassified	30,835	109	241	Goat	6,351		
British India:	,		, i	Netherlands:	1,		
Cattle		89, 443	l:	Hides, dried	22, 251	1,404	773
Goat	57.603	42, 477		Hides, fresh	246	66	
Unclassified	112, 254	5, 496		Hides, salted	43,553	10,261	22, 352
British South	,	,	1	Sheep	1,586	2,746	,
Africa:	l	1 '	!	New Zealand:	-,,,,,	_,	
Cattle	16, 116	15, 415	19,458	Sheep	18,989	24.974	l
Goat	8,029	8.324	8,514	Unclassified	6,588	6,010	
Sheep	26,792	37, 282	30, 415	Peru:	1,000	3,020	
Canada:			, , , , ,	Cattle	5,107	1	
Sheep	149	l	1	Gost	965	853	
Unclassified	45, 320	42,000	36,000	Sheep		226	
China:	,	_,	1,	Un lassified		5, 224	
Buffalo	48, 120	58, 319	62,061	Russia:		, ,,	
Horse	514	1,851	3,461	Hides, large	33,761	14,365	9,859
Goat	23, 186	22, 652	30,654	Hides, small	40, 677	18	
Sheep	931	1,325	2,516	Sheep and gost	21,913	312	
Chosen (Korea):	1	-,	_,	Singapore:	1,		
Cattle	4,944	l		Unclassified	6, 435		l
Cuba:	ı -,	l		Spain:	, 300	l	l
Cattle	14,054	16,530		Gost	1,969	2,475	3, 263
Unclassified	238	1		Sheep	7,954	5,096	12,000
Denmark:	I -~~	l		Unclassified	7,534	617	12,000
Unclassified	21,998	l		Sweden:	,,,,,,	•••	_
Dutch East Indies:	1,-50	l		Cattle, dried	446		I
Unclassified		112,080		Cattle, green	22, 287	,	

¹ Java and Madura only.

TABLE 152.—Hides and skins: international trade, calendar years 1909-1916—Contd.

RXPORTS—Continued.

Exporting country and classification.	Average, 1909-1913.	1915 (Prelim.).	1916 (Prelim.).	Exporting country and classification.	Average, 1909–1913.	1915 (Prelim.).	1916 (Prelim.)
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.		Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
weeden-Contd.	_	ł	1	Other countries:	l	l	
Horse, dried	_1			Hides—	i		
Horse, green	703			Cattle and buf-			
Goat, kid, lamb,		ļ		_falo	86,829	60, 363	
and sheep, dried	121			Horse	586	81	1
Goat, kid, lamb,				8kins		i e	t
and sheep, green	498			Alligator	63	13	
Unclassified,	_		1	Calf	4,594		
dried	7			Deer	1,272	955	
Unclassified,		1	1	Goat and kid	31,274	8,148	
green	67			Sheep and lamb	21,032	7,249	l
Switzerland:		}	i :	Sheep and goat,		1 1	
Unclassified	22, 866	14, 871	6,076	mixed	12,784	13, 278	l
United Kingdom:			'	Unclassified	67,404	22,842	
Sheep	16, 960	9,566	14, 162				
Unclassified	21, 140	11,034	19,409	Total	1.991.133	1,057,490	1
United States:	•	1	1 1				
Calf	315	830	2,232	All countries:	l		
Cattle	8, 297	19,404	10, 677	Hides-	}		
Un lassified	16,820	2, 196	2,124	Cattle and buf-		1	ļ
Uruguay:		-,	-,	falo	738, 171	572,419	
Caif	392	8,451		Horse	28, 194	7,545	
Cattle, dried	17, 239			8kins—		1 .,0.0	
Cattle, salted	27,931			Alligator	265	13	
Horse, dried	475			Calf	89,052	18, 203	
Horse, salted	75	l		Deer	2,583	1,468	
Lamb	556	424		Goat and kid	158, 250	100, 279	
Sheep	21, 252			Sheep and lamb		161, 552	
Yearling, dried	3,003	10, 102		Sheep and goat,	220,000	101,002	
Yearling, salted	181			mixed	38, 271	16,163	
Venezuela:	101			Unclassified	716, 762	179, 850	
Cattle	7,080	7,644		0 22022531104	110,102	2.0,000	
Deer	383	200		Total	1 001 133	1,057,490	
Goat	2,301	1,612		10001	1, 001, 100	1,001,780	

IMPORTS.

Austria-Hungary:				Germany-Contd.		1	1
Calf, dried	1.022		1	Sheep and lamb	2.038		
Calf, green	1, 576			Unclassified	1,931		
Cattle, dried				Greece:	-,		
Cattle, green				Unclassified	5,770	2, 151	1
Goat	1, 350	1		Italy:	٠,٠	_,	1
Horse, dried	120	1		Calf	1,609	2,142	1, 259
Horse, green	223			Cattle	47, 240	72, 754	70, 447
Kid	481			Sheep	8, 735	4.080	4, 517
Lamb	10 380			Goat	125	288	7, 283
Sheep.	3 5/13			Kid	70	1 200	112
Unclassified	688			Lamb.	536	2, 139	489
Belgium:	UOO			Unclassified	208		
Hides, green	180, 930			Japan:	205	871	902
British India:	100, 930						
Cattle	18 450	0.400	1	Cattle	5, 760	15, 053	18, 814
Unclassified	15, 473	8,477		Deer	561	483	640
	4,904	5, 544		Netherlands:			
Canada:		İ		Hides, dried	34, 879	13, 688	7,306
Unclassified	46, 820		47, 135	Hides, fresh	20		
Denmark:		ļ		Hides, salted	34, 439	6, 433	5,769
Unclassified	9, 842			Sheep	4, 353	3,260	
Finland:		ĺ	l	Norway:		l '	i
Hides, dried	4,088	646	553	Hides, dry	3,398	2,930	2, 970
Hides, green	6, 335	11,063	7, 571	Hides, green	10, 266	8, 246	6,782
Sheep	294	91	130	Hides, salted	250	158	
France:		1		Unclassified	64	25	
Calf	6, 658	1.022	1,513	Portugal:			1
Goat	20, 826	5,093	10, 200	Hides, dried	6, 596	7 353	
Kid	4, 466	1,094	3,717	Hides, green	207	464	l
Lamb	300	79	442	Roumania:			,
Sheep	4,670	376	621	Buffalo and cattle	6, 557	1	1
Unclassified	118, 588	43, 345	61, 438	Horse and	0,001		
Germany:	****, 000	20,010	01, 100	swine	5	ł	Į.
Calf, dried	13, 345	[l	Sheep, lamb.			-
Calf, green			•••••		661	1	l
Cattle, dried	04 140			and goat Russia:	001		- • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Cattle, green	215, 792				19 015	4 574	
Cost with heir				Hides, dried		4, 574	94
Goat, with hairon	20, 754			Hides, green	84, 125	532	184
Horse, dried	5, 172	ļ		Goat and kid	3, 588	691	lo 76
Horse, green	23, 222	' <i></i>	' '	Sheep	Dig 9, 414 l	ly 2: 837 0	DY IC 76

TABLE 152.—Hides and skins: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.—Contd.

IMPORTS.—Continued.

Exporting country and classification.	Average, 1909–1913.	1915 (Prelim.).	1916 (Prelim.).	Exporting country and classification.	Average, 1909–1913.	1915 (Prelim.).	1916 (Prelim.).
Singapore: Unclassified	Pounds. 9, 332	Pounds.	Pounds.	United States:-Con. Sheep, dried	Pounds. 15, 898	Pounds. 36,801	Pounds. 56, 268
Spain: Unclassified Sweden:	19, 119	28, 193	21, 516	Sheep, green or pickled Unclassified	47, 564 17, 956	38, 286 9, 991	45, 26 3 9, 607
Cattle, dried Cattle, green Horse, green	6, 009 18, 863 49			Other countries: Hides— Cattle and			
Goat, lamb, and sheep, dried Goat, kid, lamb,	395			buffalo Horse Skins—	15, 407 44	3,339	
and sheep, green	310 36			Calf Deer Goat and kid Sheep and lamb	5 476 1,271	(¹)	
Calf, dried Calf, green Goat	48 712 7, 215	1,094 13,287	410 8, 167	Sheep and goat, mixed Unclassified	459 36, 736	613 14 994	
Hides, dried and green Sheep.	97, 631 1, 744	164, 881 2, 426	124, 338			1, 108, 103	
United States: Calf, dried Calf, green or	42, 625	22, 703	34, 066	Hides— Cattle and builalo	739, 106	521, 708	
pickled Cattle and buf- falo, dried	32, 208 49, 484	26, 211 140, 944	28, 591 175, 404	Horse Skins— Calf	42, 468 163, 600	9, 935 53, 176	
Cattle and buff- alo, green or pickled	196, 137	281.141	248, 824	Deer Goat and kid Kangaroo	506 157, 721 353	454 99,757 963	
Goat, green or pickled	82, 996 15, 394	62, 721	91, 542	Sheep and lamb Sheep and goat, mixed	105, 709	95, 385	
Horse, dried Horse, green or pickled	4, 871 8, 762	5, 452 4, 475	9, 307 14, 226	Unclassified	748, 172	320, 082	
Kangaroo	353	963	1, 229		1, 500, 021	1, 100, 100	

¹ Less than 500

HORSES AND MULES.

TABLE 153.—Horses and mules: Number and value on farms in the United States, 1867-1918.

Note.—Figures in *italite* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of numbers are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available. It should also be observed that the census of 1910, giving numbers as of Apr. 15, is not strictly comparable with former censuses, which related to numbers June 1.

•		Horses.		Mules.					
Jan. 1—	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.			
1867 1868	5,757,000	\$59.05 54.27 62.57	\$318, 924, 000 312, 416, 000 396, 222, 000 556, 251, 000	822,000 856,000	\$66.94 56.04	\$55,048,000 47,954,000			
869 1870	6,333,000 8,249,000 7,345,570	62. 57 67. 43	396, 222, 000 556, 251, 000	922,000 1,180,000 1,125,415	79. 23 90. 42	73,027,000 106,654,000			
1871 1872	8,702,000 8,991,000	71. 14 67. 41	619,089,000 606,111,000	1,242,000 1,276,000	91 . 98 87. 14	114,272,000 111,222,000			
873 874 875	9,222,000 9,334,000 9,504,000	66. 39 65. 15 61. 10	612, 273, 000 608, 073, 000 580, 708, 000	1,310,000 1,339,000 1,394,000	85, 15 81, 35 71, 89	111,546,000 108,953,000 100,197,000			
1876 1877	10, 155, 000	57. 29 55. 83	557, 747, 000 567, 017, 000 584, 999, 000	1,414,000 1,444,000 1,638,000 1,713,000	66. 46 64. 07	94 001 001			
1878 1879 1880 1880, census, June 1	10.939.000	56. 63 52. 36 54. 75	584, 999, 000 572, 712, 000 613, 297, 000	1,638,000 1,713,000 1,730,000 1,812,808	62. 03 56. 00 61. 26	92, 482, 000 101, 579, 000 95, 942, 000 105, 948, 000			
1881 1882 1883 1883 1884	10,522,000 10,838,000 11,170,000	58. 44 58. 53 70. 59 74. 64 78. 70	667, 954, 000 615, 825, 000 765, 041, 000 833, 734, 000 852, 283, 000	1,721,000 1,835,000 1,871,000 1,914,000 1,973,000	69. 79 71. 35 79. 49 84. 22 82. 38	120,098,000 130,945,000 148,732,000 161,215,000 162,497,000			
1886	12,078,000 12,497,000 13,173,000	71. 27 72. 15 71. 82	960, 823, 000 901, 686, 000 946, 096, 000	2,053,000 2,117,000 2,192,000	79. 60 78. 91 79. 78	163,381,000 167,058,000 174,854,000			
1889. 1890. 1890, census, June 1	13,663,000 14,214,000 14,969,467	71. 80 68, 84	982, 195, 000 978, 517, 000	2, 258, 000 2, 331, 000 \$, 295, 532	79, 49 78, 25	179,444,000 182,394,000			
1891 1892 1893 1894	15, 498, 000 16, 207, 000	67. 00 65. 01 61. 22 47. 83 36. 29	941, 823, 000 1,007, 594, 000 992, 225, 000 769, 225, 000 576, 731, 000	2,297,000 2,815,000 2,331,000 2,352,000 2,333,000	77. 88 75. 55 70. 68 62. 17 47. 55	178, 847, 00 174, 882, 00 164, 764, 00 146, 233, 00 110, 928, 00			
1896 1897 1898 1899 1900 1900, census, June 1	14,365,000 13,961,000 13,665,000	33. 07 31. 51 34. 26 37. 40 44. 61	500, 140, 000 452, 649, 000 478, 362, 000 511, 075, 000 603, 969, 000	2,279,000 2,216,000 2,190,000 2,134,000 2,086,000	45. 29 41. 66 43. 88 44. 96 53. 55	103, 204, 00 92, 302, 00 96, 110, 00 95, 963, 00 111, 717, 00			
1901 1	16,745,000 16,531,000 16,557,000 16,736,000	52, 86 58, 61 62, 25 67, 98 70, 37	885, 200, 000 968, 935, 000 1, 030, 706, 000 1, 136, 940, 000 1, 200, 310, 000	2,864,615 2,864,000 2,757,000 2,728,000 2,758,000 2,889,000	62. 97 67. 61 72. 49 78. 88 87. 18	183, 232, 00 186, 412, 00 197, 753, 00 217, 533, 00 251, 840, 00			
1906. 1907. 1908.	18,719,000 19,747,000 19,992,000 20,640,000	80. 72 98. 51 98. 41 95. 64	1,510,800,000 1,846,578,000 1,867,530,000 1,974,052,000	\$,404,000 \$,817,000 \$,869,000 4,053,000 4,123,000 4,209,769	98. 31 112. 16 107. 76 107. 84	334,681,000 428,064,000 416,939,000 437,082,000			
1910. 1910, census, Apr. 15 1911	ı	108.03 111.46	2,142,524,000 2,259,981,000		120. 20 125. 92	506, 049, 000 544, 359, 000			
912 913 914 915 916	20, 509, 000 20, 567, 000 20, 962, 000 21, 195, 000	105. 94 110. 77 109. 32 103. 33 101. 60	2,259,981,000 2,172,694,000 2,278,222,000 2,291,638,000 2,190,102,000 2,149,786,000	4,323,000 4,362,000 4,386,000 4,449,000 4,479,000 4,593,000	120. 51 124. 31 123. 85 112. 36 113. 83	544, 359, 000 525, 657, 000 545, 245, 000 551, 017, 000 503, 271, 000 522, 834, 000			
1917 1918	21.210.000	102. 89 104. 28	2,149,786,000 2,182,307,000 2,248,626,000	4, 723, 000 4, 723, 000 4, 824, 000	113. 63 118. 15 128. 74	558, 006, 000 621, 064, 000			

¹ Estimates of numbers revised, based on census data.

Table 154.—Horses and mules: Number and value on farms Jan. 1, 1917 and 1918, by States.

				Horses.					M	lules.		
State.	(thou	mber sands)	Average per head	re price i Jan. 1—	(thousan	value ds of dol- Jan. 1—	(thou	mber sands)	Averag	e price l Jan. 1	Farm value (thousands of dollars) Jan.1—	
	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917
Me N. H Vt Mass	45 89	109 44 89 59	\$163.00 151.00 144.00 163.00	\$152.00 135.00 134.00 156.00	\$17,767 6,795 12,816 9,291	\$16, 568 5, 940 11, 926 9, 204						
R. L	8	8	155.00	155.00	1,240	1,240						
Conn N. Y N. J Pa Del	597 90 590	46 609 92 596 36	161. 00 145. 00 153. 00 126. 00 87. 00	147. 00 139. 00 149. 00 126. 00 90. 00	7,245 86,565 13,770 74,340 3,132	6,762 84,651 13,708 75,096 3,240	5 4 48 6	4	\$159.00 174.00 138.00 115.00	\$155.00 169.00 137.00 116.00	\$795 696 6,624 690	\$775 676 6,576 696
Md Va W.Va. N. C 8. C	365 196 187	169 361 196 185 85	102.00 104.00 106.00 140.00 156.00	105. 00 100. 00 107. 00 125. 00 136. 00	17, 442 87, 960 20, 776 26, 180 18, 260	17,745 36,100 20,972 23,125 11,560	25 65 12 207 179	25 64 12 205 174	124. 00 128. 00 116. 00 167. 00 192. 00	127.00 122.00 117.00 150.00 162.00	3,100 8,320 1,392 34,569 34,368	3, 175 7, 808 1, 404 30, 750 28, 188
Ga Fla Ohio Ind	883 837	127 60 892 845 1,452	145. 00 127. 00 112. 00 105. 00 108. 00	129. 00 120. 00 119. 00 108. 00 106. 00	18,850 7,874 98,896 87,885 151,101	16, 383 7, 200 106, 148 91, 260 153, 912	334 33 26 95 150	324 31 26 95 150	181. 00 172. 00 118. 00 119. 00 120. 00	163. 00 166. 00 120. 00 114. 00 115. 00	60, 454 5, 676 3, 068 11, 305 18, 000	52,812 5,146 3,120 10,836 17,250
Mich Wis Minn . Iowa Mo	708 944 1,583	680 715 925 1,552 1,020	118.00 117.00 105.00 104.00 97.00	121. 00 120. 00 109. 00 107. 00 92. 00	80, 240 82, 836 99, 120 164, 632 100, 880	82, 280 85, 800 100, 825 166, 064 93, 840	4 3 6 69 367	4 3 6 68 360	119. 00 117. 00 111. 00 116. 00 113. 00	122.00 117.00 110.00 116.00 104.00	476 351 666 8,004 41,471	488 351 660 7,888 37,440
N.Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans Ky	811 1,049 1,142	825 780 1,018 1,120 434	102.00 95.00 101.00 104.00 101.00	106. 00 93. 00 95. 00 99. 00 93. 00	85, 884 77, 045 105, 949 118, 768 44, 743	87, 450 72, 540 96, 710 110, 880 40, 362	9 16 118 280 224	9 15 112 275 224	121. 00 109. 00 113. 00 118. 00 122. 00	122.00 108.00 106.00 108.00 112.00	1,089 1,744 13,334 33,040 27,328	1,098 1,620 11,872 29,700 25,088
Tenn Ala Miss La	153 253 207	350 150 243 195 1,200	109. 00 116. 00 100. 00 93. 00 77. 00	105.00 99.00 87.00 86.00 78.00	88,150 17,748 25,300 19,251 93,324	36,750 14,850 21,141 16,770 93,600	273 289 307 156 808	270 278 292 139 800	131. 00 141. 00 124. 00 135. 00 107. 00	120.00 118.00 109.00 125.00 103.00	35,763 40,749 38,068 21,060 86,466	32, 400 32, 804 31, 838 17, 375 82, 400
Okla Ark Mont Wyo Colo	275 506	730 270 460 195 380	94. 00 97. 00 98. 00 82. 00 97. 00	86. 00 87. 00 92. 00 80. 00 93. 00	69, 278 26, 675 49, 588 17, 138 38, 703	62,780 23,490 42,320 15,600 35,340	276 263 5 4 26	276 255 5 4 24	114. 00 125. 00 105. 00 104. 00 108. 00	104.00 114.00 107.00 97.00 104.00	81, 464 82, 875 525 416 2, 808	28, 704 29, 070 535 388 2, 496
N.Mex Ariz Utah Nev	ı	250 129 138 73	62. 00 71. 00 89. 00 77. 00	62. 00 75. 00 87. 00 76. 00	16, 864 9, 585 12, 905 5, 775	15, 500 9, 675 12, 006 5, 548	19 9 2 3	19 8 2 . 3	89. 00 108. 00 82. 00 80. 00	89. 00 104. 00 79. 00 85. 00	1, 691 972 164 240	1, 691 833 158 255
Idaho. Wash. Oreg Cal	309	250 300 300 468	99. 00 108. 00 98. 00 98. 00	93. 00 98. 00 98. 00 97. 00	25, 542 83, 372 80, 282 45, 864	23, 250 29, 400 29, 400 45, 396	19 10 66	19 10 70	105. 00 117. 00 102. 00 115. 00	100.00 111.00 103.00 116.00	420 2,223 1,020 7,590	400 2, 109 1, 030 8, 120
v. s	21, 563	21, 210	104. 28	102. 89	2, 248, 626	2, 182, 307	4,824	4, 723	128.74	118. 15	621,064	558, 086

TABLE 155.—Prices of horses and mules at St. Louis, 1900-1917.

	Ra	nge o	f pri	Ces.		Rai	nge o	f pri	C88.		Ra	nge c	of pri	ces.
Year and month.	goo	rses, d to pice aft.	16 to	iles, o 16½ ods.	Year and month.	goo	ses, d to oice oft.	16 to	les, 161 ids.	Year and month.	Horses, good to choice draft.		Mu 16 to han	161
	L.	H.	L.	H.		L.	H.	L.	H.		L.	Π.	L.	H.
1900. 1901. 1902. 1903. 1904. 1905. 1906. 1906. 1907. 1909. 1909. 1910. 1911.	150 160 160 175 175 175 175 175 140 165 165	185 185 200 225 225 250 225 240 235	110 120 120 135 120 125 125 125 130 150	160 175 200 210 215 250 200 225 275 275	January February March April Muy June July August September October November	150 150 150 160 160 175 175 160 150	185 185 190 200 225 225 225 220 220	135 150 150 150 150 150 140 140 140	275 275 275 275 270 250 250 235 235	January. February March April May June July September October November December	160 160 190 190	250 260 270 285 265 250 235 220 220	150 150 150 175 175 175 200 200 190	270 270 270 270 275 275 275 275 280 260
1912 1913 1914 1915	200 175	250 220	160 120	280 250	Year, 1916.			135	_	_ ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,			172	

TABLE 156.—Average price per head for horses on the Chicago horse market, 1901-1917.

Date.	Drafters.	Carriage teams.	Drivers.	General.	Bussers, tram- mers.	Sad- dlers.1	Southern chunks.
1901	\$157.00	\$400.00	\$137,00	\$102,00	\$121.00	\$147.00	\$52.00
1902	166.00	450.00	145, 00	117.00	135.00	151.00	57.00
1903	171.00	455.00	150, 00	122, 00	140.00	156, 00	62.00
1904		475, 00	150.00	140.00	140.00	160, 00	64.00
1905		486.00	156.00	132.00	145.00	172.00	70.00
1906	188,00	486,00	158.00	154.00	147.00	174.00	72, 50
1907	194.00	482.00	165.00	137.00	152.00	172,00	77.50
1908	180.00	450.00	156.00	129.00	138.00	164.00	69.00
1909	194.00	482.00	165.00	137.00	152.00	172.00	77.00
1910	200.00	473.00	172.00	144.00	161.00	177.00	87.00
1911	205.00	483.00	182.00	155.00	170.00	190.00	92.00
1912	210.00	473.00	177.00	160.00	175.00	195.00	97.00
1913	213.00	493.00	174.00	165.00	176.00	189.00	98.00
1914	208.00	483.00	169.00	160.00	171.00	184.00	93.00
1915	. 205, 00	473.00	164.00	155.00	166.00	179.00	88.00
19 16.	-						
January	. 225.00	n (150.00	160.00	165.00	125.00	110 00
February		11	200.00	160.00	165.00	125. 00	110.00
March	275.00	II I	150.00	160.00	165.00	125. 00	110.00
April	275.00	11 1	150.00	160.00	165.00	125.00	110.00
May		11 1	200.00	160.00 160.00	165.00	125. 00 125. 00	110.00
June		No I	150. 00 150, 00	160.00	165.00 165.00	115.00	110.00 110.00
July August	250.00	sales.	175.00	160.00	165.00	115.00	110.00
September		sesses.	175.00	160.00	165.00	115.00	110.00
October		!! !	200.00	160.00	165.00	115.00	110.00
November 2	262.00	11 I	145.00	162.00	175.00	142.00	102.00
December 2		!! !	145.00	162.00	175.00	142.00	102.00
Year, 1916	252.00	IJ (166.00	160.00	167.00	121.00	109.00
1917.							
January	205.00	430.00	160.00	150.00	165.00	180.00	90.00
February		475.00	170.00	145.00	170.00	195.00	90.00
March	225.00	490.00	170.00	155.00	175.00	200.00	100.00
April	220.00	485.00	175.00	160.00	180.00	200.00	105.00
May	225.00	490.00	170.00	155.00	180.00	195.00	95.00
June		495.00	165.00	150.00	175.00	195.00	100.00
July		490.00	165.00 165.00	150.00 145.00	170.00 170.00	190.00 190.00	95.00 90.00
August		480.00 460.00	160.00	140.00	165.00	185.00	90.0
October		450.00	155.00	145.00	170.00	175.00	90.0
November		445.00	150.00	140.00	165.00	175.00	85.00
December	205.00	450.00	150.00	140.00	160.00	170.00	90.00
						- 	i
Year, 1917	212.00	470.00	162.00	148, 00	170.00	188.00	93.0

TABLE 157. --Number of horses and mules received at principal live-stock markets, 1900-1917.

[From reports of stock yards companies.]

	Но	rses.			Horses a	nd mules.			
Year and month,	Chicago.	St. Paul.	Denver.	Fort Worth.	Kansas City.	Omaha.	St. Joseph.	St. Louis National Stock Yards, Ill.	Total, 8 cities.
1900	109,353 102,100	26,778 15,123 8,162 7,823 6,438	22, 691 16, 545 24, 428 19, 040 13, 437	4,872 10,094 17,895	103, 308 96, 657 76, 844 67, 274 67, 562	59, 645 36, 391 42, 079 52, 829 46, 845	13,497 22,521 19,909 20,483 28,704	144, 921 128, 880 109, 295 128, 615 181, 341	469, 856 425, 470 387, 689 406, 761 468, 171
1906	102,055	5,561 9,299 14,557 7,125 5,632	16,046 16,571 11,059 11,158 15,348	18,033 21,303 18,507 12,435 20,732	65, 582 69, 629 62, 341 56, 335 67, 796	45, 422 42, 269 44, 020 39, 998 31, 711	31, 565 28, 480 26, 894 22, 875 23, 132	178, 257 166, 393 117, 379 109, 393 122, 471	487, 716 480, 923 396, 812 351, 457 378, 233
1910	104,545 92,977	5,482 7,709 5,314 5,203 5,683 10,091	15,554 18,022 14,918 16,274 16,957 71,870	34,445 37,361 49,025 56,724 47,712 53,640	69, 628 84, 861 73, 445 82, 110 87, 155 102, 153	29,734 31,771 32,520 31,580 30,688 41,679	27, 583 42, 023 38, 661 32, 418 25, 424 41, 254	130, 271 170, 379 163, 973 156, 825 148, 128 270, 612	396, 136 496, 671 470, 813 471, 749 468, 029 756, 552
January February March April May June July August September October November	15, 913 17, 469 14, 882 18, 240 17, 557	377 1,010 1,131 1,092 821 1,571 1,510 1,003 1,195 835 910 322	7, 912 6, 101 3, 546 2, 679 4, 704 4, 517 4, 872 3, 476 5, 444 5, 299 1, 441 2, 809	4,915 3,132 4,980 3,518 6,468 4,073 12,967 7,261 4,590 11,686 8,351 7,270	7, 886 4, 735 5, 012 7, 073 8, 171 7, 156 11, 027 13, 414 13, 349 17, 145 13, 093 15, 080	1,443 2,135 2,952 1,695 3,036 2,338 2,177 3,152 3,332 2,042 1,731 1,453	2, 456 2, 313 1, 515 1, 682 2, 143 2, 124 1, 934 1, 660 2, 599 3, 920 2, 892 1, 968	25, 809 20, 114 17, 599 14, 881 20, 695 15, 785 26, 574 27, 292 26, 655 31, 147 22, 244 22, 023	63, 784 55, 453 54, 204 47, 578 64, 278 55, 121 80, 051 77, 154 78, 296 91, 028 65, 004 62, 015
Total, 1916	205, 449	11,777	52, 800	79,209	123, 141	27,486	27, 206	266, 818	793,886
1917. January February March April May June July August September October November	11,329 15,823 9,175	496 544 895 598 465 476 553 405 1, 261 1, 158 1, 704 1, 404	2,095 1,701 1,143 1,154 1,755 2,137 1,305 2,137 1,305 2,014 2,014	7, 322 2, 763 4, 203 4, 429 1, 742 3, 793 9, 156 9, 312 14, 523 30, 647 18, 302 9, 020	15, 144 14, 402 14, 275 13, 263 5, 379 2, 578 4, 171 3, 776 10, 313 13, 936 17, 861 12, 765	1, 724 2, 108 3, 229 2, 641 1, 225 1, 044 1, 889 1, 424 5, 465 6, 341 3, 802 1, 789	2, 625 1, 978 2, 958 1, 862 733 462 821 1, 301 3, 438 5, 908 6, 367 5, 131	24, 957 15, 068 16, 874 13, 370 8, 198 6, 852 15, 659 13, 963 31, 267 51, 291 47, 743 34, 595	65, 151 44, 977 54, 648 44, 909 27, 057 24, 600 41, 915 35, 658 74, 576 121, 161 113, 776 75, 898
Total, 1917	107,311	9, 959	19,758	115, 233	127, 823	32,781	33,584	279,837	726,28

TABLE 158.—Horses and mules: Imports, exports, and prices, 1893-1917.

	In	ports of hor	ses.	Ex	ports of horse	rs.	Ex	ports of mul	es.
Year ending June 30—	Num- ber.	Value.	Average import price.	Num- ber.	Value.	A verage export price.	Num- ber.	Value.	Average export price.
1893	6,166 13,098 9,991	\$2,388,267 1,319,572 1,055,191 662,591 464,808	\$154.57 214.01 80.56 66.32 66.42	2, 967 5, 246 13, 984 25, 126 39, 532	\$718,607 -1,108,995 2,209,298 3,530,703 4,769,265	\$242.20 211.40 157.99 140.52 120.64	1,634 2,063 2,515 5,918 7,473	\$210,278 240,961 186,452 408,161 545,331	\$128.69 116.80 74.14 68.63 72.97
1898	3,085 3,042 3,102 3,785	414, 899 551, 050 596, 592 985, 738 1, 577, 234	134. 49 181. 15 192. 32 260. 43 326. 41	51, 150 45, 778 64, 722 82, 250 103, 020	6, 176, 569 5, 444, 342 7, 612, 616 8, 873, 845 10, 048, 046	120. 75 118. 93 117. 62 107. 89 97. 53	8,098 6,755 43,369 34,405 27,586	664, 780 516, 908 3, 919, 478 3, 210, 267 2, 692, 298	82. 09 76. 52 90. 38 93. 31 97. 60
1903	4,726 5,180 6,021	1,536,296 1,460,287 1,591,083 1,716,675 1,978,105	307. 32 308. 99 307. 16 285. 11 325. 35	34,007 42,001 34,822 40,087 33,882	3,152,159 3,189,100 3,175,259 4,365,981 4,359,957	92.69 75.93 91.19 108.91 131.99	4, 294 3, 658 5, 826 7, 167 6, 781	521,725 412,971 645,464 989,639 850,901	121. 47 112. 90 110. 79 138. 08 125. 48
1908	7,084 11,620 9,593	1,604,392 2,007,276 3,296,022 2,692,074 1,923,025	292. 40 283. 35 283. 65 280. 63 291. 06	19,000 21,616 28,910 25,145 34,828	2,612,587 3,386,617 4,081,157 3,845,253 4,764,815	137. 50 156. 67 141. 17 152. 92 136. 81	6,609 3,432 4,512 6,585 4,901	990,667 472,017 614,094 1,070,051 732,095	149. 90 137. 53 136. 18 162. 50 149. 30
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917	33,019 12,652 15,556	2,125,875 2,605,029 977,380 1,618,245 1,888,303	212.42 78.89 77.25 104.03 150.06	28, 707 22, 776 289, 340 357, 553 278, 674	3,960,102 3,388,819 64,046,534 73,531,146 59,525,329	137. 95 148. 79 221. 35 205. 65 213. 60	4,744 4,883 65,788 111,915 136,689	733, 795 690, 974 12, 726, 143 22, 946, 312 27, 800, 854	154.68 141.51 193.44 205.03 203.39

CATTLE.

Table 159.—Cattle (live): Imports, exports, and prices, 1893-1917.

		Imports.			Exports.	
Year ending June 30—	Number.	Value.	Average import price.	Number.	Value.	Average export price.
1893	3, 293	\$45, 682	\$13.87	287, 094	\$26,032,428	\$90, 68
1894	1, 592	18, 704	11.75	359, 278	33,461,922	93, 14
1895	149, 781	765, 853	5.11	331, 722	30,603,796	92, 26
1995	217, 826	1, 509, 856	6.93	372, 461	34,560,672	92, 79
1996	328, 977	2, 589, 857	7.87	392, 190	36,357,451	92, 70
1898.	291,589	2,913,223	9. 99	439, 255	37, 827, 500	86. 12
1899.	199,752	2,320,362	11. 62	389, 490	30, 516, 833	78. 35
1990.	181,006	2,257,694	12. 47	397, 286	30, 635, 153	77. 11
1901.	146,022	1,931,433	13. 23	459, 218	37, 566, 980	81. 81
1902.	96,027	1,608,722	16. 75	392, 884	29, 902, 212	76. 11
1908.	66, 175	1,161,548	17. 55	402,178	29, 848, 936	74. 22
1904.	16, 036	310,737	19. 35	593,409	42, 256, 291	71. 21
1905.	27, 855	458,572	16. 46	567,806	40, 598, 048	71. 50
1906.	29, 019	548,430	18. 90	584,239	42, 081, 170	72. 03
1907.	32, 402	565,122	. 17. 44	423,051	34, 577, 392	81. 73
1908	92, 356	1,507,310	16. 32	349, 210	29, 339, 134	84. 02
	139, 184	1,999,422	14. 37	207, 542	18, 046, 976	86. 96
	195, 938	2,999,824	15. 37	139, 430	12, 200, 154	87. 50
	182, 923	2,953,077	16. 14	150, 100	13, 163, 920	87. 70
	318, 372	4,805,574	15. 09	105, 506	8, 870, 075	84. 07
1913	421, 649	6,640,668	15. 75	24,714	1,177,199	47. 63
	868, 368	18,696,718	21. 53	18,376	647,288	35. 22
	538, 167	17,513,178	32. 54	5,484	702,847	129. 16
	439, 185	15,187,593	34. 58	21,666	2,383,765	110. 02
	374, 826	13,021,259	34. 74	13,387	949,503	70. 93

CATTLE-Continued.

Table 160.—Cattle: Number and value on farms in the United States, 1867-1918.

Note.—Figures in italics are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of numbers are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available. It should also be observed that the census of 1910, giving numbers as of April 15, is not strictly comparable with former censuses, which related to numbers June 1.

		Milch eow	S.		Other cat	tle.
Jan. 1—	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.
1867. 1878. 1879. 1870. 1870, census June I.	8,692,000 9,245,000	\$28. 74 26. 56 29. 15 32. 70	\$239, 947, 000 230, 817, 000 269, 610, 000 330, 175, 000	11,731,000 11,942,000 12,185,000 15,388,000 13,566,005	\$15. 79 15. 06 18. 73 18. 87	\$185, 254, 00 179, 888, 00 228, 183, 00 290, 401, 00
1871 1872 1873 1873 1875	10,301,000	33. 89 29. 45 26. 72 25. 63 25. 74	339, 701, 000 303, 438, 000 282, 559, 000 274, 326, 000 280, 701, 000	16,212,000 16,390,000 16,414,000 16,218,000 16,313,000	20. 78 18. 12 18. 06 17. 55 16. 91	336, 860, 00 296, 932, 00 296, 448, 00 284, 706, 00 275, 872, 00
1876. 1877. 1878. 1879. 1880. 1880, census June 1.	11,261,000 11,300,000 11,826,000 12,027,000	25. 61 25. 47 25. 74 21. 71 23. 27	283, 879, 000 286, 778, 000 290, 898, 000 256, 721, 000 279, 899, 000,	16, 785, 000 17, 956, 000 19, 223, 000 21, 408, 000 21, 231, 000 \$2, 488, 550	17. 00 15. 09 16. 72 15. 38 16. 10	285, 387, 00 287, 156, 00 321, 346, 00 329, 254, 00 341, 761, 00
1881 1882 1883 1884 1885	12,369,000 12,612,000 13,126,000 13,501,000	23. 95 25. 89 30. 21 31. 37 29. 70	296, 277, 000 326, 489, 000 396, 575, 000 423, 487, 000 412, 903, 000	20, 939, 000 23, 280, 000 28, 046, 000 29, 046, 000 29, 867, 000	17. 33 19. 89 21. 81 23. 52 23. 25	362,862,00 463,070,00 611,549,00 683,229,00 694,383,00
1896. 1887. 1888. 1890. 1890.	14,522,000 14,856,000 15,299,000	27. 40 26. 08 24. 65 23. 94 22. 14	389, 986, 000 378, 790, 000 366, 252, 000 366, 226, 000 353, 152, 000	31, 275, 000 33, 512, 000 34, 378, 000 35, 032, 000 36, 849, 000 38, 734, 128	21. 17 19. 79 17. 79 17. 05 15. 21	661,956,00 663,138,00 611,751,00 597,237,00 560,625,00
801 1892 893 894 895	16,020,000 16,416,000 16,424,000	21. 62 21. 40 21. 75 21. 77 21. 97	346, 398, 000 351, 378, 000 357, 300, 000 358, 999, 000 362, 602, 000	36, 876, 000 37, 651, 000 35, 954, 000 36, 608, 000 34, 364, 000	14. 76 15. 16 15. 24 14. 66 14. 06	544, 128, 00 570, 749, 00 547, 882, 00 536, 790, 00 482, 999, 00
1896 1897 1898 1898 1899 1980 1980, census June I	15,942,000 15,841,000 15,990,000	22. 55 23. 16 27. 45 29. 66 31. 60	363, 956, 000 369, 240, 000 434, 814, 000 474, 234, 000 514, 812, 000	32,085,000 30,508,000 29,264,000 27,994,000 27,610,000 50,585,777	15. 86 16. 65 20. 92 22. 79 24. 97	508, 928, 00 507, 929, 00 612, 297, 00 637, 931, 00 689, 486, 00
1901 1 1902 1903 1904 1905	17, 105, 000 17, 420, 000	30, 00 29, 23 30, 21 29, 21 27, 44	505, 093, 000 488, 130, 000 516, 712, 000 508, 841, 000 482, 272, 000	45,500,000 44,728,000 44,659,000 43,629,000 43,669,000	19. 93 18. 76 18. 45 16. 32 15. 15	906, 644, 00 839, 126, 00 824, 055, 00 712, 178, 00 661, 571, 00
(1996 1917 1918 1919 1910 (910 , census A pr. 1 5	20,968,000 21,194,000 21,720,000	29. 44 31. 00 30. 67 32. 36 35. 29	582, 789, 000 645, 497, 000 650, 057, 000 702, 945, 000 727, 802, 000	47, 068, 000 51, 566, 000 50, 073, 000 49, 379, 000 47, 279, 000 41, 178, 434	15. 85 17. 10 16. 89 17. 49	746, 172, 000 1, 557, 000 845, 938, 000 863, 754, 000 785, 261, 000
1911 1 1912 - 1913 - 1914 - 1915 - 1916 - 1917 -	20, 699, 000 20, 497, 000 20, 737, 000	00.04	832, 209, 000 815, 414, 000 922, 783, 000 1, 118, 487, 000 1, 176, 338, 000 1, 191, 955, 000 1, 365, 251, 000	39, 679, 000 37, 260, 000 36, 030, 000 35, 855, 000 37, 067, 000 39, 812, 000 41, 689, 000	20, 54 21, 20 26, 36 81, 13 33, 38 33, 53 35, 92	815, 184, 000 790, 064, 000 949, 645, 000 1, 116, 333, 000 1, 237, 376, 000 1, 334, 928, 000 1, 497, 621, 000

CATTLE—Continued.

TABLE 161.—Cattle: Number and value on farms Jan. 1, 1917 and 1918, by States.

•			Mi	lch oov	78.				Oth	er cat	le.	
State.	Nun (thous Jan.		Ave price he Jan	ad	Farm (thous dollars)	ands of	Nun (thous Jan.	ands)	Ave price he Jan.	per ad	Farm value (thousands of dollars) Jan. 1—	
	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Mass ichusetts . Rhode Island	170 102 295 154 21	163 98 281 160 22	90.00	66. 50 62. 50 75. 00	22, 420 13, 860	\$9,454 6,517 17,562 12,000 1,694	97	112 63 172 88 11	33.40 37.30	\$27.90 31.60 25.70 29.60 31.30	2,840 6,313 3,618	\$3, 125 1, 991 4, 420 2, 605 344
Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania. Delaware	116 1,524 152 960 43	121 1,539 155 980 43	85.00 90.00 75.00	66.00 76.00 62.50	9, 860 129, 540 13, 680 72, 000 2, 752	8, 894 101, 574 11, 780 61, 250 2, 408	1,005 74 717	73 939 74 664 21	38.30 41.60 36.80	30.80 31.00 34.00 30.80 31.90	38, 492 3, 078 26, 386	2,248 -29,109 2,516 20,451 670
Maryland Virginia West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina.	181 377 215 309 193	24 5	57.00 61.50 51.00	46.50 53.50 39.00	12,580 21,489 15,068 15,759 11,098	10, 614 17, 344 13, 108 12, 285 7, 560	510	125 486 369 364 215	37.70 44.80 24.80	32. 20 31. 80 38. 70 19. 40 18. 30	19, 227 16, 710 9, 300	4,025 15,455 14,280 7,062 3,934
Georgia	435 145 940 713 1,057	950 706	53.00 74.00 70.00	37.00 43.00 60.00 58.50 68.00	7, 685 69, 560 49, 910	15, 466 6, 063 57, 000 41, 301 71, 876	891 954	735	22. 20 43. 70	16. 50 36. 40 39. 00	19,780 41,690 34,065	32, 760 28, 665
Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Missouri	1,785	865 1,750 1,302 1,405 875	75.00 70.00 76.70	61, 50 65, 00 58, 00 66, 50 58, 50	133, 875 92, 960 107, 761	53, 198 113, 750 75, 516 93, 432 51, 188	1,394 1,540 2,919	730 1,340 1,400 2,754 1,650	33.30 31.40 47.90	29.80 26.50 43.20	46, 420 48, 356 139, 820	118,973
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky	434 555 703 945 435	425 524 676 900 418	75.00 78.50	61, 50 67, 00 68, 00 64, 50 49, 50	41, 625 55, 186 71, 253	26, 138 35, 109 45, 968 58, 050 20, 691	2,803 2,351	2, 525	49.80 49.30 49.30	43. 70 44. 30 43. 10	71, 612 138, 188 116, 052	54, 625 111, 858 94, 820
Tennessee	373 433 508 324 1,128	405 475 800	47.50 49.50	36.50 38.00	20, 568 24, 130 16, 038	15, 738 14, 782 18, 050 12, 600 64, 038	644 578	52 5	20.40 21.90 24.20	14.70 16.40	13, 627 14, 101 13, 988	7, 850 9, 130 10, 500
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana Wyoming Colorado	562 425 179 64 254	535 405 160 60 237	56.00 83.50 88.00 82.00	60.00 44.00 79.00 81.50 73.50	23,800 14,946 5,632	32, 100 17, 820 12, 640 4, 890 17, 420	638 980	560 1,000 825	24.90 56.10 59.10		15,886 51,978 52,658	10, 752 53, 100 43, 478
New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada	88 87 96 28	85 81 91 26	72.00 85.00 73.50 85.00	85.00 61.00 76.00	7, 395 7, 056 2, 380	5, 780 6, 885 5, 551 1, 976	1,037 457 517	408 470	40.50 43.90 46.30	37.30 34.90 39.50	20,062 23,937	32, 227 14, 239 18, 565
Idaho	139 266 227 597	225 591	70.00 60.00 72.50	63.50 59.50 55.00 67.00	18, 620 13, 620 43, 282		294 683 1,701		36.00 39.50 42.10	37. 30 38. 10	10, 584 26, 978 71, 612	62, 332
United States.	23, 284	22, 894	70.59	59.63	1, 643, 639	1,365,251	43,546	41,689	40.88	35.92	1,780,052	1,497,621

CATTLE-Continued.

TABLE 162.—Cattle: Wholesale price per 100 pounds, 1912-1917.

					,					
	Chie	eago.	Cinci	nnati.	St. L	ouis.	Kansa	s City.	Om	aha,
Date.		ior to me.	heavy	um to butcher ers.	Good to native	choice steers.		non to me.	Native	beeves.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. January-June July-December	\$1.75 2.25	\$9,60 11.25	\$4.10 4.05	\$6. 25 6. 75	\$7.35 8.30	\$9.50 11.00	\$4.60 5.50	\$9.50 12.40		
1913. January-June July-December 1914.	3.00 3.00	9. 50 10. 25	4. 65 4. 50	7.65 7.00	8. 00 8. 50	9. 25 10. 00	4.75 4.50	9.00 10.00	\$3. 25 3. 00	\$8. 80 9. 60
January-June July-December	6. 60 4. 85	9. 75 11. 25	5. 35 4. 65	7. 25 7. 25	8. 00 8. 00	9. 00 9. 50	5. 20 4. 50	9. 40 11. 35	6. 50 6. 00	9. 25 10. 75
1915. January-June July-December	4. 25 4. 00	9. 95 13. 60	4. 85 4. 15	7.00 7.00	7. 35 8. 80	9. 40 10. 40	6. 00 5. 50	9.75 10.35	8. 30 9. 85	9. 35 10. 10
January	5. 50 5. 70 6. 75 7. 25 7. 50 7. 15	9. 85 9. 75 10. 05 10. 00 10. 90 11. 50	5. 00 5. 00 5. 50 6. 00 6. 25 6. 25	6. 25 6. 40 7. 40 7. 75 9. 25 8. 50	8. 40 8. 50 9. 00 9. 25 9. 55 10. 60	9. 60 9. 00 10. 00 10. 00 10. 35 11. 35	7.15 6.90 7.10 7.50 7.50 8.00	9. 75 9. 75 10. 05 10. 00 11. 05 11. 50	6. 00 6. 25 7. 00 7. 25 7. 65 7. 25	8.75 8.65 9.40 9.50 10.65 11.00
JanJune	5. 50	11.50	5.00	9. 25	8.40	11.35	6. 90	11.50	6.00	11.00
July	3.30	11. 30 11. 50 11. 50 11. 65 12. 40 13. 00	6. 00 6. 00 5. 75 5. 50 5. 50 6. 00	8. 00 7. 50 7. 25 7. 00 7. 35 7. 75	9. 60 9. 20 10. 35 10. 60 9. 00 8. 00	11. 00 10. 50 10. 85 11. 15 9. 85 11. 50	• 7. 75 7. 75 9. 50 7. 75 6. 00 6. 00	11. 30 11. 35 11. 25 10. 50 11. 75 12. 00	6.75 6.50 6.50 6.50 6.50 7.00	10. 40 10. 60 10. 85 11. 10 11. 10
July-Dec	5. 50	13.00	5. 50	8.00	8.00	11.50	6.00	12.00	6. 50	11.50
1917. January February March April May June	5. 75 6. 60 6. 25 7. 65 8. 25 7. 90	11. 95 12. 25 12. 90 13. 40 13. 70 13. 90	6.00 6.00 6.50 7.00 7.50 7.50	10. 25 11. 25 11. 25 11. 75 12. 50 12. 85	10.00 10.00 10.25 10.25 10.25 11.00	10. 75 11. 00 11. 25 11. 50 12. 25 12. 25	6. 50 6. 50 6. 50 6. 50 9. 00 9. 00	11. 25 12.00 11.50 12.00 13.40 13.75	10.00 10.25 10.25 11.35 11.25 12.25	11. 50 11. 50 12. 50 13. 05 13. 35 13. 85
JanJune	5 . 75	13.90	6.00	12. 85	10.00	12. 25	6.50	13. 75	10.00	13. 85
July	6. 50 6. 15 6. 25 6. 50 6. 50 6. 65	14. 15 16. 50 17. 90 17. 60 17. 60 16. 00	6. 50 6. 50 6. 50 6. 00 6. 00 5. 00	12. 25 13. 00 14. 50 14. 00 13. 35 13. 50	11. 25 11. 25 11. 75 12. 75 10. 50 10. 00	13. 75 14. 00 15. 50 15. 50 16. 50 16. 00	9. 75 9. 75 10. 00 10. 00 10. 00 9. 25	13. 90 16. 00 17. 00 16. 50 16. 50 14. 75	12. 25 12. 50 13. 00 15. 00 14. 00 11. 50	14. 00 15. 55 17. 00 16. 50 16. 75 15. 00
July-Dec	6. 15	17. 90	5.00	14. 50	10.00	16. 50	9. 25	17. 00	11. 50	17.00

BUTTER AND EGGS.

TABLE 163.—Butter: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1917.

	Elį	gin.	Chie	ago.	Cinci	nnati.	Milw	au kee.	New	York.	Bos	ton.
Date.		mery, tra.		mery, tra.		nery, tra.		mery,		mery, tra.		mery tra.
	Low.	High	Low.	High	Low.	High	Low.	High	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. January-June July-December	Cts. 25 25	Cts. 40 35½	Cts. 25 24	Cts. 40 37	Cts. 271 271	Cts. 42½ 39	Cts. 25 25	Cts. 40 354	Cts. 26 26	Cts. 41 38	Cts. 27½ 27	Cts. 38 34
January-June July-December	26½ 26	35 35)	25 24	36 36	31 30	40 39 ₄	27 26	35 35 <u>1</u>	26½ 26	42 37½	28 27	36 <u>1</u> 35
1914. January-June July-December	23 <u>1</u> 26	35 <u>1</u> 34	24 26	35½ 34	27 <u>1</u> 30	39 <u>1</u> 38	231 26	35 <u>1</u> 34	241 261	50 36½	25 271	341 331
January-June July-December	25 <u>1</u> 24	34 34	26 24	34 34	29½ 28	38 38	251 24	34 34	24 25	36 36}	27 26	331 82
1916. January February March April May June	30 30 34 32 29 28	314 34 36 36 32 29	30 30 34 324 284 275	32 33½ 36½ 36 32 29	35 34 38 37 32 32	35½ 37 40 40 37 33	30 30 34 33 28 28	31½ 34 36 36 32 29	31 30½ 36 33½ 30 29	33½ 36 38 37¾ 34 30½	32 32 33 36 36 30½ 29½	32 32 354 36 <u>1</u> 34 30
January-June	28	36	273	361	32	40	28	36	29	38	291	351
July	27½ 28 31½ 34 35 37	28 31 34 35 42 42	271 281 311 34 35 37	28 31½ 34 35 42 40	31½ 32 35 37 39 41	32 35 37 39 46 46	27½ 28 31 34 35 37	28 31 33 35 42 42	28½ 30 33 35½ 36 87	30 334 34 361 421 411	29 80 33 35 86 88	29 321 341 352 39 39
July-December	271	42	271	42	311	46	271	42	281	421	29	39
January. February. March. April. Muy June	36½ 39 40 37 87 87 36½	39 42 43 46 43 43	36½ 38 40 37¼ 37 36	39 42 42} 46 43 41	401 43 44 41 39	43 46 44 50 45 45	36½ 39 40 38 37 36	39 42 42 46 43 42	39 404 40 <u>4</u> 39 38 37	421 46 441 461 431 42	38 39 39 431 391 38	39 40 41 47 43 41}
January-June	361	46	36	46	39	50	36	46	371	467	38	47
July	36½ 38 41½ 42 43 46½	38 41 43} 434 454 49	36½ 38 41½ 42 43 46½	381 411 431 431 461 461	39 401 431 441 451 471	40; 43; 45; 46 47; 53	381 381 42 421 431 46	42 42 431 44 46 48	371 391 431 432 44 47	40 43 1 45 46 48 51 <u>1</u>	381 391 431 431 431 441	39 43 45 45 44 46
July-December	361	49	361	49	39	53	381	48	371	511	391	46

TABLE 164.—Butter: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[Butter includes all butter made from milk, melted and renovated butter, but does not include margarine, cocoa butter, or ghee. See "General note," Table 152.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	Average, 1909–1913.	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	Country.	A verage, 1909–1913.	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)
From— Argentina. Australia. Austria-Hungary. Belgium. Canada. Denmark Frinland. France. Germany Italy	3, 125 3, 973 195, 530 26, 337 40, 769 498	Pounds, 10, 192 16, 722 3, 593 20, 015 50, 381 7, 488	Pounds. 12,502 7,787 8,960 21,046	From— Netherlands New Zealand Norway Russia Sweden United States Other countries Total	Pounds. 75, 133 38, 761 3, 137 150, 294 45, 870 4, 125 4, 811 689, 293	Pounds. 93, 352 47, 056 3, 067 119, 359 17, 941 4, 651 394, 357	Pounds. 78, 99 1,02: 26,56

IMPORTS.

Into— Austria-Hungary Belgium Brazil British South Africa Canada. Denmark Dutch East Indies.	14,024 4,551 4,234 3,388 6,241 4,152	732 2,030 5,661 13,547 1,194	140 273 2,092	Into— Germany. Netherlands. Russia Sweden. Switzerland United Kingdom. Other countries.	111, 441 4, 987 2, 202 330 11, 106 455, 489 27, 364	905 2,615 5,700 426,355 15,704	992 5, 922 946 240, 270
Egypt Finland France		4,916 1,711	761	Total	674, 223	471,070	

¹ Java and Madura only.

Table 165.—Butter: Average price received by farmers on first of each month, by States, 1917.

					Butte	r, cents	s per p	ound.				
State and division.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
Maine	37	38	39	39	39	41	39	38	42	47	47	47
New Hampshire	40	37	40	39	44	44	44	43	44	48	48	49
Vermont.	40	40	41	40	45	43	40	41	44	47	50	48
Massachusetts.	42	39	41	41	47	46	46	47	46	48	49	49
Rhode Island	42	41	40	43	50	46	47	47	46	50	50	49
Connecticut. New York. New Jersey. Pennsylvania. Delaware.	40 39 41 39 40	39 39 41 39 38	39 41 44 39	39 41 44 38 35	47 42 46 40 45	46 42 46 40 45	45 40 44 38 40	46 40 44 38 42	47 43 46 42 48	47 47 47 41 41	50 47 49 47 45	49 48 49 48 50
Maryland	34	35	37	33	36	34	33	34	36	37	40	42
Virginia.	31	31	32	32	34	32	31	31	32	35	37	39
West Virginia.	32	32	32	30	33	32	31	32	33	37	39	41
North Carolina.	30	30	30	30	30	30	31	31	31	35	36	39
South Carolina	32	32	33	32	39	35	35	35	37	39	40	41
Georgia	31	29	30	29	33	33	33	31	33	35	38	40
Florida	41	39	41	42	45	44	40	42	41	43	47	45
Ohio	34	33	34	32	36	34	32	33	35	38	40	42
Indiana	32	31	31	31	33	32	32	31	33	37	39	40
Illinois	34	32	33	32	35	34	33	34	33	38	40	40
Michigan	36	35	35	35	37	36	33	34	38	40	42	44
Wisconsin	38	38	40	39	41	40	37	38	40	43	43	44
Minnesota	36	38	38	37	40	38	35	37	39	41	44	43
Iowa	35	35	36	35	38	37	34	35	37	40	43	44
Missouri	30	30	30	30	33	31	29	30	31	34	36	37
North Dakota	36	35	34	31	36	35	34	33	35	37	39	40
	36	34	34	33	38	35	34	32	37	40	42	43
	, 33	30	31	30	35	34	31	32	34	38	40	40
	32	31	31	31	34	33	31	32	34	37	39	40
	26	27	28	27	29	27	27	27	28	31	32	33
Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana Texas.	26	25	26	26	27	26	26	25	27	30	31	33
	27	25	26	27	29	28	29	28	29	30	32	34
	29	28	28	28	30	29	29	29	28	31	32	36
	33	33	33	33	35	34	34	34	34	35	37	39
	30	28	28	28	31	29	29	30	31	34	36	37
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana Wyoming Colorado	30 30 40 40 37	30 28 38 39 34	29 28 38 38 38 34	30 28 37 38 33	32 30 43 42 38	29 29 43 42 37	30 28 36 38 35	31 27 36 40 36	31 28 41 43 40	33 30 42 46 42	37 34 45 51 44	39 35 45 50 45
New Mexico	38 41 35 38	37 42 35 42	39 45 35 42	38 39 36 39	42 43 38 44	40 45 37 44	39 46 36 46	43 42 36 44	40 42 50	44 45 41 46	46 48 45 49	47 49 45 54
Idaho	37	36	37	38	40	38	36	38	43	46	46	49
Washington	39	39	39	40	44	39	39	40	44	48	49	50
Oregon	38	36	37	36	39	38	37	39	43	45	49	48
California	35	38	40	36	37	36	38	42	43	46	47	47
United States	34.0	33. 5	34. 1	33. 5	36. 1	35. 0	33. 5	34.0	36. 1	38. 9	40. 9	41.9
North Atlantic. South Atlantic. N. Central E. Miss. R. N. Central W. Miss. R. South Central Far Western	28.4	39. 0 31. 3 33. 7 33. 2 27. 4 37. 2	40. 1 32. 0 34. 4 33. 5 27. 7 38. 2	39. 6 31. 0 33. 5 32. 8 27. 7 36. 5	41. 7 33. 8 36. 3 36. 3 29. 8 39. 1	41. 7 32. 6 35. 0 34. 8 28. 3 37. 6	39. 7 32. 1 33. 2 32. 4 28. 3 37. 6	39. 7 32. 1 33. 8 33. 3 28. 3 39. 8	42. 9 33. 3 36. 0 35. 3 29. 1 42. 8	46. 0 36. 2 39. 0 38. 2 31. 7 45. 2	47. 5 38. 2 40. 7 40. 6 33. 6 47. 2	48. 0 40. 2 42. 0 41. 1 35. 3 47. 5

TABLE 166.—Butter: Receipts at seven leading markets in the United States, 1891-1917.

[From Board of Trade, Chamber of Commerce, and Merchants' Exchange reports.] [000 omitted.]

Year.	Boston.	Chicago.	Mil- . waukee.	St. Louis.	San Fran- cisco.	Total 5 cities.	Cincin- pati.	New York.
Averages: 1891-1895. 1896-1900. 1901-1905. 1906-1910.	50,790 57,716	Pounds. 145,225 232,289 245,203 286,518	Pounds. 3,996 5,096 7,164 8,001	Pounds. 13,944 14,582 14,685 17,903	Pounds. 15, 240 14, 476 15, 026 13, 581	Pounds. 219, 360 317, 233 339, 794 392, 615	Packages. 88 157 177 169	Packness. 1,741 2,010 2,122 2,207
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	57,500 54,574 54,347 55,435 66,725	253, 809 219, 233 232, 032 249, 024 271, 915	5,590 7,290 6,857 7,993 8,091	13,477 14,573 14,090 15,727 15,566	14, 972 14, 801 13, 570 14, 336 17, 450	345,348 310,471 320,886 342,515 379,747	238 223 121 147 155	2,040 1,933 2,113 2,170 2,355
1906	63,589 69,813	248,648 263,715 316,095 284,547 318,986	8,209 8,219 8,798 7,458 7,319	13,198 13,453 18,614 21,086 23,163	9,282 17,359 13,833 14,486 13,994	366,635 344,489 427,783 392,631 432,883	205 187 166 150 135	2, 242 2, 113 2, 175 2, 250 2, 257
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	71,703 73,028 82,082	334,932 287,799 286,220 311,557 344,879 359,195 323,100	8,632 6,927 9,415 9,716 8.679 7,976 6,116	24,839 20,399 24,686 24,614 21,264 16,445 16,996	21,118 24,887 23,027 22,421 28,349 28,029 25,032	453,395 411,621 415,051 441,336 485,253 490,950 440,412	162 120 102 72 129 151 63	2, 405 2, 433 2, 522 2, 505 2, 741 2, 918 2, 575
January. February March April May June July August September October November Desember	3,808 3,543 4,516 5,512 11,753 12,041 7,891 5,560 5,531	18, 803 16, 593 17, 999 17, 999 43, 863 53, 034 39, 337 29, 232 26, 889 17, 537 16, 770	305 399 465 431 528 740 679 601 592 514 440 422	1,335 1,251 1,474 1,377 1,718 2,371 1,298 1,152 1,196 1,538 1,443 845	1,388 1,668 2,378 3,045 3,335 2,685 1,857 1,731 1,626 1,729 2,011 1,557	24,667 23,719 25,859 27,364 36,160 61,413 68,910 50,713 38,206 36,200 24,694 22,507	10 3 13 7 4 3 4 1 1 3 6 4 4 6 6	170 162 160 223 328 323 294 240 225 143

¹ Figures for 1917 were furnished by the Bureau of Markets. ² Cincinnati, 1917, excludes "through" movement.

Table 167.—Eggs: Average price received by farmers on first of each month, by States, 1917.

Na												
					Eggs	s, cents	per d	ozen.				
State and division.	January.	February.	March.	A pril.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
Maine	46 49 45 58 56	43 46 42 49 49	43 42 44 47 47	31 31 29 34 33	34 39 33 40 41	37 39 36 43 42	35 39 36 43 41	38 43 37 47 42	46 49 44 55 48	50 51 46 58 58	51 52 48 65 61	56 60 49 65 60
Connecticut. New York New Jersey Pennsylvania. Delaware.	52 48 49 44 43	51 45 50 42 35	45 43 46 40	30 31 32 28 30	36 34 35 33 32	42 36 37 34 37	39 36 29 34 32	45 38 42 36 38	54 46 47 40 38	56 50 50 44 45	62 50 55 47 50	70 56 60 51 55
Maryland Virginia. West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina.	41 37 41 32 34	38 35 37 31 31	35 33 36 29 29	27 24 24 21 21 22	30 29 31 25 25	32 30 31 27 28	30 30 32 28 29	32 29 33 26 27	35 32 33 29 30	39 38 38 35 35	40 40 42 38 41	48 44 44 40 44
Georgia. Florida. Ohio. Indiana. Illinois.	34 40 40 38 38	29 35 38 34 36	30 35 36 33 35	21 25 26 25 25 26	26 30 31 30 31	28 29 33 33 31	27 30 30 28 28	27 33 33 30 30	31 34 36 33 32	36 40 39 37 37	41 44 · 41 38 38	43 46 46 43 42
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iows. Missouri.	38 36 35 35 34	38 37 35 36 34	37 36 34 33 31	37 26 26 25 25 25	31 30 29 30 30	33 31 31 31 30	29 28 28 27 26	32 31 29 28 26	36 33 32 32 29	38 37 35 34 34	40 37 36 35 34	43 40 38 39 39
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska. Kansas. Kentucky	37 36 33 33 35	37 34 32 32 34	36 32 31 29 32	27 24 24 25 23	27 29 29 29 28	29 29 30 30 29	27 27 25 26 26	26 28 26 25 27	29 31 29 29 27	32 34 33 34 33	35 36 34 35 35	39 37 37 38 39
Tennessee Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Texas	35 32 33 33 32	*32 28 30 29 28	30 27 29 28 26	22 21 21 23 23 21	27 25 27 25 25 27	28 25 26 27 25	25 25 25 25 25 24	24 24 24 26 28	27 27 26 28 25	33 31 31 31 32	34 35 34 37 37	39 37 37 41 40
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana W voming Colorado	34 33 50 50 44	31 28 47 48 39	28 28 41 41 32	22 22 31 32 25	27 26 29 33 32	27 25 31 33 32	26 25 34 34 31	23 22 34 37 33	26 25 39 40 38	31 31 41 42 42	34 35 45 48 42	39 37 52 53 46
New Mexico	43 53 42 43	37 43 41 44	35 35 34 42	28 32 25 30	31 34 29 31	32 38 30 36	33 42 30 39	37 41 30 41	38 36 48	38 52 38 41	41 50 43 55	48 54 45 58
Idaho Washington Oregon California	46 44 40 41	43 41 37 38	38 33 31 31	30 28 27 27	32 33 31 30	31 32 30 32	31 33 29 32	33 36 33 34	36 41 34 40	41 43 39 45	43 50 45 50	50 53 50 53
United States	37.7	35.8	33.8	25.9	30.0	31.1	28.3	29.8	33.2	37.4	39.4	43.3
North Atlantic. South Atlantic. N. Central E. Miss, R. N. Central W. Miss, R. South Central Far Western.	47. 4 36. 9 38. 2 34. 2 33. 3 42. 8	41.6 33.8 36.6 34.1 30.0 39.5	42.5 32.3 35.3 31.6 28.4 32.8	30.1 23.5 27.5 25.0 21.8 27.4	34.4 28.1 30.7 29.5 26.8 30.9	36.3 29.3 32.2 30.3 26.4 31.7	36. 2 24. 6 28. 7 26. 5 25. 0 31. 9	38.6 29.5 31.2 26.8 24.0 34.0	44.9 32.0 34.0 30.3 26.1 38.7	48. 7 37. 4 37. 7 34. 0 31. 9 42. 9	51.0 40.7 39.0 34.8 35.3 47.4	55.6 44.1 43.1 38.4 38.8 51.2

TABLE 168.—Eggs: Receipts at seven leading markets in the United States, 1891-1917. [From Board of Trade, Chamber of Commerce, and Merchants' Exchange reports.]

Year.	Boston.	Chicago.	Cincin- nati.	Milwau- kee.	New York.	St. Louis.	San Fran- cisco.	Total.
Averages: 1891-1895. 1896-1900. 1901-1905. 1906-1910.	912, 807 1, 155, 310	Cases. 1, 879, 065 2, 196, 631 2, 990, 675 4, 467, 040	Cases. 288, 548 362, 262 418, 842 509, 017	113,327 139,718	Cases. 2, 113, 946 2, 664, 074 3, 057, 298 4, 046, 360	Cuses. 557, 320 852, 457 1, 000, 935 1, 304, 719	Cuses. 166, 059 194, 087 304, 933 334, 766	Cases. 5, 818, 244 7, 295, 645 9, 067, 741 12, 360, 259
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	1,053,165 1,164,777 1,122,819	2, 783, 709 2, 659, 340 3, 279, 248 3, 113, 858 3, 117, 221	493, 218 464, 799 338, 327 877, 263 420, 604	114,732 129,278 166,409	2, 909, 194 2, 743, 642 2, 940, 091 3, 215, 924 3, 477, 638	1,022,646 825,999 959,648 1,216,124 980,257	277,500 285,058 335,228 319,637 307,243	8, 655, 001 8, 146, 735 9, 146, 597 9, 532, 034 9, 858, 338
1906. 1907. 1908. 1909.	1,594,576 1,436,786 1,417,397	3,583,878 4,780,356 4,569,014 4,557,906 4,844,045	484, 208 588, 636 441, 072 519, 652 511, 519	176, 826 207, 558 160, 418	3, 981, 013 4, 262, 153 3, 703, 990 3, 903, 867 4, 380, 777	1,023,125 1,288,977 1,439,868 1,395,987 1,375,638	847, 436 840, 185	11, 108, 390 13, 070, 963 12, 145, 724 12, 295, 412 13, 192, 811
1911	1,580,106 1,589,400 1,531,329 1,757,594 1,649,828	4, 707, 335 4, 556, 643 4, 593, 800 4, 083, 163 4, 896, 246 5, 452, 737 5, 678, 679	605, 131 668, 942 594, 954 461, 927 812, 371 853, 910 184, 022	191,059 224,797 192,743 208,924	5,021,757 4,723,520 4,713,555 4,882,222 5,585,329 4,858,274 4,357,061	1,736,915 1,394,534 1,396,065 1,474,212 1,492,729 1,521,506 1,373,120	638,890 573,042 619,500 629,577	14, 275, 863 13, 699, 531 13, 663, 875 13, 277, 150 15, 366, 589 15, 120, 193 13, 945, 231
1917.1 January February March April May June July August September October November December	74,816 170,737 252,047 318,421 193,613 112,856 86,634 84,008 79,856 43,613	117, 951 85, 940 376, 361 926, 647 1, 200, 041 896, 403 620, 283 449, 968 361, 159 295, 082 192, 537 150, 307	*8,757 13,489 11,268 2,708 35,681 25,019 18,995 14,095 17,315 11,134 15,731 9,230	2,787 5,341 9,495 25,387 24,059 15,332 8,032 10,354 10,329 11,624 8,582 3,303	143, 005 139, 466 405, 330 746, 808 737, 689 664, 515 394, 625 337, 144 332, 515 284, 398 169, 079 102, 487	43, 676 73, 237 253, 992 260, 433 253, 800 128, 373 92, 375 74, 663 44, 794 35, 199 21, 041	50,019 75,900 93,961 91,211 91,838 78,853 51,516 45,017 35,305 37,019 28,240 36,888	421,929 468,190 1,321,144 2,305,241 2,061,529 1,902,108 1,304,682 1,305,349 915,294 763,907 492,941 352,877

Figures for 1917 were furnished by the Bureau of Markets.
 Cincinnati, 1917, excludes "through" shipments.

TABLE 169.—Eggs: Wholesale price per dozen, 1912-1917.

	Chic	ago.			St. L	ouis.	Milwa	ukee.	New `	York.
Date.	Fre	sh.	Cincia	mati.	Averag	ge best, sh.	Fre	sh.	Averag	e best, sh.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
JanJune July-Dec	17 17	40 27½	17 18	40 36	16 141	39 27	15 16	38 30	201 23	48 60
1913. JanJune	164	971	154	971	141	25	14	25	20	40
July-Dec	16	27½ 37	18	27½ 42	12	35	13	35	25	68
1914. JanJune July-Dec	17 18	32½ 36	161 181	36 38½	14 18	31 35	15 16	30 32	20 24	50 62
1915. JanJune July-Dec	16 16	38 30}	121 10	40½ 36	151 141	37½ 30	15] 15]	34 32	18 18	44 40
1916.										
January	27 20 1	321 29	18	34) 28)	24½ 19	31	25 201	31 28	26 22	35
February March		22	181 171	23	17	30 201	17	20	213	30 28 22 23
A pril	194	21	172	21	181	203	173	19	201	22
May		213	171	211	19	201	18	20	21 1	23
June	201	213 221	18	221	19	20	19	20	22	24
JanJune.∴	181	321	17	34}	17	31	17	31	201	35
July	. 211	23	174	24			19	22	23}	271
August	23	96	181	30	22	26	19	25	26	34
September	251	301	21	311 351	24	28	21 22	27	31	35 37
October	30	321	251	351	28	31	22	30	321	37
November	311	391	28	43	31	39 38	27 33	38 38	35	46
December	37	41	31	47	36	38	33		413	47
July-Dec	217	41	171	47	22	39	19	38	23 4	47
1917.			1					1		
January	361	49	30	53	36	42	33	44	39	53
February	29	45	29 22 27]	50 31	28	42	29	42	33	49
March	26 294	31 36	22,	31	251 281	29½ 35	254 30	31	281 32	35 364
April	31	351	28	344	304	331	31	35½ 35	331	37
May June	281	35	26	35	27	33	28	35	30	37
JanJune	26	49	22	53	251	42	251	44	281	53
July	301	331	20	35	26	291	301	38	34	36
August	301	331 371	20	39	26	35	30 €	38 38	34	42
September	36	39	30	41	34	37	363	38	39	42
October	36	39	33 36	50 50	34	37	36	38	39	43
November	38	49	36	50	38	431	38	45	41	56
December	46	57	37	57	421	51	44	55	513	62
July-Dec	30}	57	20	57	26	51	301	55	34	62

CHEESE.

TABLE 170.—Cheese: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

[Cheese includes all cheese made from milk; "cottage cheese," of course, is included. See "General note," Table 152.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	Average, 1909–1913.	1015 (Prelim.)	1916 (Prelim.)	Country.	A verage, 1909–1913.	1915 (Prelim.)	1):6 (Prelim.)
From— Bulgaria Canada	Pounds. 5,584 167,260	Pounds.	Pounds.	Prom— Russia Switzerland	Pounds. 7,011 70,075	Pounds 995 74,775	Pounds. 105 47, 215
France Germany		16, 242	13,934	United States Other countries	5,142 10,705	63, 227 8, 343	54,093
Italy Netherlands New Zealand	60,560 127,379 55,561	65,762 190,334 91,533	39,323 199,108	Total	538, 124	671,871	
	1	1	IMPO	ORTS.		1	
Into— Algeria Argentina	6,592	4,614 7,306	3,133	Into- France	49,056 48,687	46,744	24, 140
Australia Austria-Hungary	360	1,532	3,133	ItalyRussia.		3,472 3,738	252 2,066
Belgium	31,771	2,300	1,423	Spain	5,032 7,150	3, 202 3, 410	1,453 427
British South Af-		4,012	2,037	United Kingdom United States	257, 407 46, 346	299, 920 38, 919	287, 115 28, 516
Cuba Denmark		2,839	2,001	Other countries	19,590	7,681	20,910
Egypt		5,785	1,845	Total	535, 255	435, 474	1

CHICKENS.

 \mathbf{T}_{ABLE} 171.—Chickens: Average price received by farmers on first of each month, by States, 1917.

			7	(Chicke	ns, cen	ts per	pound		•		
State and division.	January.	February.	March.	April.	Мау.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island	16. 2 19. 5 15. 2 21. 0 21. 0	17.0 20.0 17.4 21.0 20.5	18.0 19.0 15.6 23.0 22.0	18.0 20.4 17.5 24.0 23.0	19.4 20.0 17.5 25.0 29.5	19. 1 20. 8 19. 0 23. 0 26. 0	21.0 21.0 17.9 24.4 29.0	21.2 21.0 19.3 26.0 24.0	21.6 21.4 18.6 24.6	20.9 21.0 20.3 26.0 25.3	20. 2 21. 5 20. 0 24. 0 26. 0	19.5 22.5 19.5 22.2 24.5
Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	17.2 19.6 15.9 16.0	20.8 18.8 21.0 16.4 17.0	20.5 19.0 21.4 17.9	20.7 19.3 21.3 18.8 20.0	24.0 20.3 22.2 20.2 25.0	23.6 21.0 23.0 20.0 22.0	23.6 21.1 23.0 19.9 18.0	24.0 22.0 24.0 20.7 25.0	24.0 22.7 25.0 21.2 23.0	24.2 21.9 25.6 21.0 23.0	25.1 22.7 25.1 22.3 25.0	25. 0 23. 0 24. 7 21. 0 22. 5
Maryland		18.4 16.5 14.8 13.9 14.4	18.8 17.4 16.0 14.6 14.7	19.5 16.9 15.8 15.2 15.3	22.2 19.2 18.1 16.0 15.0	22.0 18.7 17.8 17.0 17.4	24.0 19.0 18.3 18.2 16.9	21.2 20.1 19.8 17.2 17.6	21.8 19.2 19.4 17.6 16.6	24.7 20.5 19.5 18.5 17.0	22.1 21.5 20.2 18.6 19.0	21.5 21.0 19.5 19.4 19.5
Georgia. Florida Ohio Indiana Illinois	10.0	14.1 19.3 15.5 15.0 14.7	15.0 19.4 16.5 16.2 15.8	15.5 19.6 17.7 16.8 16.8	17.3 20.4 18.7 18.5 18.1	17.1 20.2 18.6 18.1 17.5	17.7 19.3 17.7 17.5 17.6	17.2 21.0 18.0 17.0 17.1	18.0 19.8 18.2 17.5 17.4	18.0 22.0 19.8 18.5 18.2	20.5 22.5 18.0 17.6 17.0	20.0 23.0 18.0 16.5 16.6
Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Missouri		14.8 13.5 12.7 14.2 14.1	15.9 15.1 13.4 14.9 15.2	15.9 15.8 13.5 15.2 16.0	18.1 17.0 15.2 16.2 17.7	18. 1 17. 5 15. 2 16. 2 17. 1	18.1 17.5 14.8 15.5 16.6	17.0 16.5 14.3 15.7 16.3	17.8 17.0 14.9 15.9 16.3	18.2 18.1 15.6 17.0 17.7	17.4 16.2 14.1 15.9 16.5	16.5 15.5 14.2 15.6 16.2
North Dakota	10.5 12.0 12.1 12.1 13.1	12.2 12.8 13.0 13.9 14.3	11.4 12.2 13.8 14.1 15.5	12.7 13.8 14.4 14.9 16.4	13.6 14.5 15.9 16.1 17.8	14.3 14.5 15.7 16.2 17.3	13.9 13.7 14.8 15.5 17.0	13. 2 13. 7 15. 3 14. 7 17. 5	13.8 15.7 15.0 14.9 16.5	14.5 14.6 17.3 16.6 17.8	13.0 14.0 14.8 15.7 17.2	12.0 14.5 14.9 15.5 16.8
Tennessee Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Texas		13.9 13.2 13.4 16.1 12.2	15. 1 13. 7 13. 9 15. 7 12. 8	16.7 13.8 15.1 16.8 13.2	17.7 15.5 15.9 17.7 15.1	17.8 15.5 16.4 18.9 15.2	18.1 15.6 16.3 19.8 15.0	15.8 15.5 16.0 19.0 14.0	16.0 14.7 15.3 19.0 14.2	16.6 16.7 16.2 19.3 14.9	16.8 17.4 17.1 20.6 15.5	16.6 18.2 17.5 20.0 15.7
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana W yoming Colorado	12.3 11.8 14.5 16.0 13.4	12.6 11.5 15.1 15.5 13.9	13.7 12.6 16.5 17.4 14.4	14.4 13.9 16.4 19.4 14.9	15.9 15.3 18.0 18.8 17.5	16.0 16.2 19.0 20.0 18.6	16.1 15.5 20.0 17.6 17.8	15.4 15.4 18.1 18.8 16.8	14.4 14.9 21.1 17.6 17.8	15. 2 15. 0 19. 1 21. 3 17. 8	15.9 15.6 18.4 18.9 18.2	15.3 17.0 18.0 18.0 17.2
New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada	19.5 13.4	15. 2 21. 1 14. 1 22. 5	15.4 18.8 15.6 21.4	15.6 21.0 •15.1 23.2	15.4 20.8 15.4 22.0	15.7 22.0 16.6 26.0	17.1 24.6 17.6 24.0	19.5 24.0 16.5 22.0	18.0 16.9 21.0	23.0 23.5 17.7 22.0	20.4 22.0 18.0 24.2	19.0 19.5 17.5 24.0
Idaho	13.0 14.4 13.5 16.8	12.3 14.3 13.5 18.3	13.0 15.2 15.0 17.5	14.4 17.0 15.8 18.7	16.0 18.4 17.6 19.1	16.0 18.0 16.3 17.9	15.6 17.8 16.0 18.6	15.6 16.8 16.1 18.9	16.0 17.5 15.8 19.4	16.5 17.3 17.0 19.3	15.5 18.5 17.8 20.0	16.0 17.5 17.0 22.2
United States	13.9	14.7	15.5	16.1	17.5	17.5	17.8	17.1	17.2	18.1	17.7	17.5
North Atlantic. South Atlantic. N. Central E. Miss. R. N. Central W. Miss. R. South Central Far Western	15. 1 13. 8 12. 8 13. 0	18.2 15.5 14.8 13.7 13.2 16.0	19.0 16.1 16.0 14.3 13.9 16.2	19.6 16.5 16.8 14.9 14.7 17.2	20. 9 18. 2 18. 2 16. 2 16. 2 18. 2	20.9 18.3 18.0 16.1 16.4 17.7	21.1 18.7 17.7 15.5 16.4 18.0	21.9 19.0 17.2 15.3 15.7 17.8	22.3 18.8 17.6 15.5 15.4 18.2	22.1 19.7 18.6 16.8 16.2 18.6	22. 7 20. 6 17. 3 15. 5 16. 7 19. 0	22. 1 20. 4 16. 8 15. 3 16. 8 19. 4

SHEEP AND WOOL.

TABLE 172.—Sheep: Number and value on farms in the United States, 1867-1918.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of numbers are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available. It should also be observed that the census of 1910 giving numbers as of Apr. 15, is not strictly comparable with former censuses, which related to numbers June 1.

Year.	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.	Year.	Number.	Price per head Jan. I.	Farm value Jan. 1.
1867 1868		\$2.50 1.82	\$98, 644, 000 71, 053, 000	1892 1893	44, 938, 000 47, 274, 000	\$2.58 2.66	\$116, 121, 000 125, 909, 000
1869		1.64	62, 037, 000	1894	45, 048, 000	1.98	89, 186, 000
1870		1.96	79, 876, 000	1895		1.58	66, 686, 000
1870. census.	10, 500, 000	2.50	10,010,000	1896		1.70	65, 168, 000
June 1	28.477.951			1897		1.82	67, 021, 000
1871		2. 14	68, 310, 000	1898	37, 657, 000	2.46	92, 721, 000
1872	31,679,000	2. 61	82, 768, 000	1899	39, 114, 000	2.75	107, 698, 000
1873	33,002,000	2.71	89, 427, 000	1900	41, 883, 000	2.93	122, 666, 000
1874		2. 43	82, 353, 000	1900. census,		1	
1875		2. 55	86, 278, 000	June 1	61,503,715		
18 <u>76</u>		2.37	85, 121, 000	1901 1	59, 757, 000	2.98	178, 072, 000
1877		2. 13	76, 362, 000	1902		2.65	164, 446, 000
1878		2. 21	78, 898, 000	1903		2.63	168, 316, 000
1879		2. 07 2. 21	78, 965, 000	1905	51, 630, 000 45, 170, 000	2.59 2.82	133, 530, 000
1880 1880, census ,	40, 766, 000	2.21	90, 231, 000	1906	50, 632, 000	3.54	127, 332, 000 179, 056, 000
June 1		1		1907	53, 240, 000	3.84	204, 210, 060
1881		2.39	104, 071, 000	1908	54, 631, 000	3.88	211, 736, 00
1882		2. 37	106, 596, 000	1909	56, 084, 000	3.43	192, 632, 0x
1883		2.53	124, 366, 000	1910	57, 216, 000		200, 000, 000
1884		2.37	119, 903, 000	1910, census,	0.,,		
1885		2.14	107, 961, 000	Apr. 15	52, 447, 861	4.12	216, 030, 000
1886	48, 322, 000	1.91	92, 444, 000	1911 1	53, 633, 000	3.91	209, 535, 000
1887	44, 759, 000	2.01	89, 873, 000	1912	52, 362, 000	3.46	181, 170, 000
1888		2.05	89, 280, 000	1913		3.94	202, 779, 000
1889		2. 13	90, 640, 000	1914	49, 719, 000	4.02	200, 045, 000
1890		2. 27	100, 660, 000	1915	49, 956, 000	4.50	224, 687, 000
1890, census.				1916	48, 625, 000	5.17	251, 594, 000
June 1			100 007 000	1917	47, 616, 000	7.13	339, 529, 000
1891	43, 431, 000	2. 50	108, 397, 00 0	1918	48, 900, 000	11.82	577, 867, 0 0

¹ Estimates of numbers revised based on census data.

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 173 .- Sheep: Number and value on farms Jan. 1, 1917 and 1918, by States.

State.	Number sands) J		Average p	price per un. 1—		ue (thou- of dollars)
	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917
Maine. New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts. Rhode Island	163	157	\$9. 40	\$6. 30	\$1,532	\$989
	37	35	10. 60	6. 70	392	254
	106	100	11. 60	7. 30	1,230	730
	28	25	10. 30	6. 70	288	168
	6	5	9. 50	7. 20	57	36
Comecticut. New York New Jersey Pennsylvania. Delaware	20	18	11. 40	7.60	228	137
	840	800	13. 20	8.40	11,088	6, 720
	26	29	10. 90	7.20	283	209
	913	830	11. 70	7.10	10,682	5, 893
	10	8	9. 00	5.90	90	47
Maryland Virginia. West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina.	234	223	9.80	6. 60	2, 293	1, 472
	686	686	10.50	6. 50	7, 203	4, 459
	751	715	11.20	6. 60	8, 411	4, 719
	137	140	6.60	3. 90	904	546
	31	30	4.60	3. 20	143	98
Georgia	144	150	4. 20	2. 80	605	420
	120	119	3. 40	2. 70	408	321
	3,091	2,944	11. 60	7. 20	35, 856	21, 197
	998	950	12. 80	8. 20	12, 774	7, 790
	988	898	12. 90	8. 20	12, 745	7, 364
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri.	1,926	1,834	12. 60	7. 80	24, 268	14, 305
	651	645	11. 90	7. 50	7, 747	4, 838
	568	541	11. 80	7. 60	6, 702	4, 112
	1,224	1,200	13. 80	8. 80	16, 891	10, 560
	1,466	1,370	12. 90	7. 70	18, 911	10, 549
North Dakota. South Dakota. Nebraska. Kansas Kentucky.	252	240	11. 80	7. 40	2,974	1,776
	750	625	11. 60	7. 40	8,700	4,625
	408	381	11. 00	7. 50	4,488	2,858
	418	348	12. 00	7. 60	5,016	2,645
	1,270	1, 155	11. 20	7. 10	14,224	8,200
Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi. Louisiana. Texas.	606	600	8.60	5. 80	5, 212	3, 480
	131	121	4.50	3. 20	590	387
	174	193	4.50	3. 00	783	579
	209	240	4.10	2. 90	857	696
	2,188	2,328	7.50	4. 40	16, 410	10, 243
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana Wyoming Colorado	208	104	11.30	6. 30	2, 350	655
	149	124	7.10	3. 90	1, 058	484
	3,045	3,500	12.60	7. 10	38, 367	24, 850
	4,100	4,100	13.60	7. 60	55, 760	31, 160
	2,086	1,950	12.60	7. 50	26, 284	14, 625
New Mexico	3, 135	3,300	10. 00	5. 80	31, 350	19, 140
	1, 550	1,632	10. 40	6. 30	16, 120	10, 282
	2, 340	2,089	13. 60	7. 90	31, 824	16, 503
	1, 630	1,455	13. 90	8. 20	22, 657	11, 931
Idaho. Washington. Oregon. California.	3, 202	3, 170	13.30	8. 20	42,587	25, 994
	661	585	11.40	7. 10	7,535	4, 154
	2, 448	2, 400	12.10	8. 10	29,621	19, 440
	2, 776	2, 524	11.30	6. 70	31,369	16, 911
United States	48,900	47, 616	11.82	7. 13	577,867	339, 529

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 174.—Sheep: Imports, exports, and prices, 1893-1917.

		Imports.			Exports.	
Year ending June 30—	Number.	Value.	A verage import price.	Number.	Value.	A verage export price.
1893	459, 484 242, 568 291, 461 322, 692 405, 633	\$1,682,977 788,181 682,618 853,530 1,019,668	\$3.66 3.25 2.34 2.65 2.51	37, 260 132, 370 405, 748 491, 565 244, 120	\$126, 394 832, 763 2, 630, 686 3, 076, 384 1, 531, 645	\$3.39 6.29 6.48 6.26 6.27
1898. 1899. 1900. 1901.	392, 314 345, 911 381, 792 331, 488 266, 953	1,106,322 1,200,081 1,365,026 1,236,277 956,710	2.82 3.47 3.58 3.73 3.58	199, 690 143, 286 125, 772 297, 925 358, 720	1,213,886 853,555 733,477 1,933,000 1,940,060	6. 06 5. 96 5. 83 6. 49 5. 41
1903	301,623 238,094 186,942 240,747 224,798	1,036,934 815,289 704,721 1,020,359 1,120,425	3.44 3.42 3.77 4.24 4.98	176, 961 301, 313 268, 365 142, 690 135, 344	1,067,860 1,954,604 1,687,321 804,090 750,242	6. 03 6. 45 6. 25 5. 64 5. 56
1908. 1909. 1910. 1911.	224, 765 102, 663 126, 152 53, 455 23, 588	1,082,608 502,640 696,879 377,625 157,257	4.82 4.90 5.52 7.06 6.67	101,000 67,656 44,517 121,491 157,263	589, 285 365, 155 209, 000 636, 272 626, 985	5. 83 5. 46 4. 66 5. 24 3. 96
1913 1914 1915 1915 1917	15, 428 223, 719 153, 317 235, 659 160, 422	90, 021 532, 404 533, 967 917, 502 856, 645	5. 83 2. 38 3. 48 3. 89 5. 34	187, 132 152, 600 47, 213 52, 278 58, 752	605, 725 534, 543 182, 278 231, 535 367, 477	3. 24 3. 50 3. 86 4. 43 6. 24

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 175.—Sheep: Wholesale price per 100 pounds, 1912-1917.

	Chie	ago.	Cincli	nnati.	St. L	ouis.	Kansa	s City.	Ome	sha.
Date.	Nat	ive.	Good to	extra.	Good to	choice ves.	Nati	lve.1	Wes	tern.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	\$2, 50 2, 00	\$7.50 5.65	\$3.00 2.85	\$5.50 4.00	\$4.00 3.75	\$7.00 5.00	\$3.30 3.35	\$8.00 7.35		
1913. JanJune July-Dec	2.50 2.00	7. 90 6. 00	3. 60 3. 25	7.00 4.50	4.75 4.00		2. 75 2. 00	7.50 7.00	\$3.75 2.75	\$8. 15 6. 75
JanJune July-Dec	2.00 2.00	7.00 6.50	4. 10 4. 00	6. 15 5. 35	5.00 4.50	6. 50 5. 75	2. 50 2. 25	7. 25 7. 50	5.00 4.80	7. 50 8. 00
JanJuneJuly-Dec	2.50 2.00	10.65 8.75	4. 10 4. 50	8. 75 8. 75	5. 25 5. 25	8. 50 6. 00	4. 50 4. 00	10.00 8.25	4.00	7.00 4.50
January	4.00 4.00 3.50	8. 25 8. 75 9. 00 9. 25 10. 00 9. 00	5. 50 5. 75 6. 50 6. 50 6. 50 6. 50	6. 86 7. 75 8. 00 8. 00 8. 50 7. 25	6. 50 7. 50 8. 00 8. 50 8. 35 7. 25	7.50 8.00 8.50 8.85 8.75 7.75	5.00 6.30 6.50 7.00 7.00 6.35	9.50 10.00 10.90 11.00 11.50 10.50	6. 25 7. 00 7. 50 8. 00 6. 50 6. 75	9. 15 9. 85 10. 50 10. 25 11. 00 8. 75
JanJune		10.00	5. 50	8.50	6. 50	8.85	5.00	11.50	6. 25	11.00
July	2.50	8, 50 8, 25 8, 50 8, 50 9, 00 10, 25	5. 50 5. 00 5. 00 5. 50 5. 50 6. 00	7.00 7.00 6.75 6.75 7.00 8.50	7. 25 7. 25 7. 00 7. 00 5. 50 6. 75	7. 25 7. 25 7. 25 7. 25 7. 25 9. 00 9. 25	6, 75 6, 50 6, 00 6, 00 6, 00 7, 25	10.00 10.35 8.75 8.75 9.75 11.75	6. 50 6. 25 6. 25 6. 50 6. 25 6. 75	8. 25 8. 25 8. 50 8. 50 10. 00 11. 75
July-Dec	2.50	10. 25	5.00	8. 50	5. 50	9. 25	6.00	11.75	6. 25	11.75
1917. January February March April May June	7.00 9.00 8.50 8.50 11.75 8.00	13. 50 13. 85 14. 35 15. 50 19. 00 17. 50	7. 50 8. 00 9. 00 10. 00 8. 50 7. 50	8. 40 9. 00 11. 00 11. 75 12. 00 9. 50	9. 00 10. 50 11. 50 12. 00 13. 50 9. 75	10. 25 11. 25 12. 00 12. 00 14. 00 13. 50	7. 75 7. 75 10. 00 10. 00 12. 00 9. 00	12. 50 13. 50 12. 60 15. 00 18. 00 12. 50	7. 50 8. 75 10. 00 10. 00 11. 50 16. 00	13. 00 13. 50 13. 75 14. 50 16. 00 13. 75
JanJune	7.00	19.00	7. 50	12.00	9.00	11.00	7.75	18.00	7.50	16.00
July	7.75 8.90 9.00	14.00 13.50 14.25 14.35 14.65 14.50	6. 50 7. 50 9. 50 9. 50 9. 50 9. 50	8. 25 9. 00 10. 00 10. 50 10. 50	8.50 8.50 10.00 11.00 11.00	9. 25 9. 50 11. 00 11. 50 12. 00 11. 50	8.00 8.00 9.00 9.50 10.00 10.50	11. 25 15. 00 15. 50 14. 75 14. 10 14. 75	8.00 9.00 10.50 9.50 10.50 10.50	13. 75 12. 50 13. 86 13. 75 14. 25
July-Dec	7.75	14. 65	6.50	10.50	8.50	12.00	8.00	15. 5	80.00	14. 25

¹ Not including lambs for 1912 and 1917.

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TABLE 176.—Wool: Product by States, 1916 and 1917.

[Estimate of U. S. Department of Agriculture.]

	Estimate of U. S. Department of Agriculture.									
State.	Fle (000 on	eces nitted).	Weig	ht per sce.	Wool I tion (00 te	oroduc- 00 omit- d.)	1	Price po	er pound	 16
Dvave,				,		 -		1		
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	Apr. 15.	Oct. 15.	Apr. 15.	Oct. 15.
Maine.	Number 126		Pounds. 6. 6	Pounds. 6. 5	Pounds. 833	Pounds. 850	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
New Hampshire Vermont	126 27 82	131 28 77	6. 7 7. 3	6.6	183 597	185 580	47 45	66 64 65	28 31	36
Massachusetts Rhode Island	18	18 5	6. 5 6. 2	7. 0 5. 0	119 24	125 25			29	
Connecticut	14	14	5.5	5.5	75	75				
New York New Jersey	517 15	530 16	6.8 5.2 6.5	6.7 5.0	3,514 80 4,225	3,550 80 4,225	45	65 62	32	35
Pennsylvania	650 5	650 5	5.8	6. 5 5. 8	31	30	28	02	20	33
Maryland	126 539	- 129 530	6.0 5.0	5.8	758 2,695	750 2,750 3,125	40 37	65 68	29 30	36 35
Kentucky	619	625	4.8	5.0	2,969		37	59	81	35 33
Ohio Michigan. Indiana Illinois	1,881 1,107	1,950 1,134	7. 4 7. 4	7.0 7.3	13, 923 8, 192	13,650 8,275	46 47	67 65	31 31	34 34
Indiana Illinois	619 488	650 514	7. 0 7. 9	6.8 7.5	8, 192 4, 332 3, 855	13,650 8,275 4,420 3,855	42 37	61 58	30 27	34 34 32
Wisconsin	334 380	330 385	7. 9	7.6	2,636 2,964 4,875	2,510 2,695 4,875	41 37	62 50	28 27	33
Iowa. Missouri	633 687	641 680	7. 8 7. 7 7. 0	7. 0 7. 6 6. 8	4,875 4,810	4,875 4,625	39 37	56 60	28 28	32 28 30 31
Total	8,871	9,042	6. 95	6. 77	61,690	61, 255	42, 1	62. 4	29.7	33.0
Virginia North Carolina	405 146	380 133	4. 6 3. 8	5. 0 4. 3	1,862 553	1,900 570	42 36	65	29 26	35
South Carolina	24	25 165	4. 0 2. 9	3.8	95 455	95 495	29 28	55 46 49	22 25	35 29 28 27 27
Georgia Florida	157 127	iii	2.8	3.1	355	345		62	ļ	27
Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana	106 149	100 135	3.3 3.3	3.5 4.0	350 491	350 540	26 27	38 37	21 21	24 24
Louisiana	156 78	159 80	3.6 4.5	3.7 4.4	560 350	590 350	27 28	36 43	16 22	18 21
Tennessee	423	425	4. 2	4.4	1,776	1,870	35	50	26	28
Total	1,771	1,713	3. 87	4. 15	6,847	7, 105	34. 4	51.9	25. 0	2%.2
Kansas Nebraska	191 256	185 229	7.6 7.5	7. 2 8. 0	1,450 1,922	1,330 1,830	43	<u> </u>	22 27	₂₈
South Dakota North Dakota	512 192	475 180	7.3	7.5 7.5	1 3.738	3,560 1,350	38 33	54 50	23 24	29 29 29
Montana	3,071	3,150	7.6	7.8	1,418 23,342	24,570	42	50	30	29
WyomingIdaho	3,705 1,974	3,647 2,055	8. 2 7. 6	8.5 7.3	30,380 15,000	31,000 15,000	41 41	55 60	23 27	28 28
Washington Oregon	594 1,610	594 1,630	8.4 8.2	8.0	4,988 13,200	15,000 4,750 13,200	38 40	56 54	24 27	27
California	1,740	1.812	7.0	6.4	12 180	11.600	38	53	22	20
Utah	1,397 2,053	1,333 2,083	7.3 7.6	7.5 7.2	10,200 15,600 8,820	10,000 15,000	37 36	50 47	22 26	24
Colorado	1,378	1,400	6.4	6.0	1	0,400	38		26	26
Arizons New Mexico	897 3,176	915 3,200	6. 5 5. 8 7. 0	6.5 5.7 7.0	5, 831 18, 422	5,950 18,240	37 33 27	49	25 22	24
Texas Oklahoma	1,435 77	1,464 75	7. 0 6. 5	7. 0 6. 7	10,045 500	10, 250 500	27 36	47 44	21 22	25 25
Total	24,258	24,427	7. 30	7. 23	177,036	176, 530	38.0	52.1	24. 8	26. 3
United States.	34,900	35, 182	7. 04	6. 96	245, 573	244, 890	39. 0	54. 9	26.0	28. 3
Pulled wool Total product					40,000 285,573	43,600 288,490				
	<u> </u>	1	1	<u>{</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>i</u>	<u> </u>	<u> 1</u>	<u> </u>

TABLE 177 .- Wool: Wholesale price per pound in Boston, 1912-1917.

Date.		fine, ashed.	qua bio	ucky, rter od, shed. ¹	Ohio was	XX, hed.	com	half ood bing, hed.	Dela	nio sine, hed.	fine	nigan , un- hed.
	Low.	High .	Low.	High .	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High .	Low.	High.
1912. January–June July–December	Cts. 21 22	Cts. 23 25	Cts. 221 271	Cts. 29 33	Cts. 28 30	Cts. 30 33	Cts. 26 28½	Cts. 30 31	Cts. 30 33	Cts. 35 35	Cts. 19 21	Cts. 22 23
January-June July-December	20 20	24 21	24 234	32 26	27 25	32 30	23 23	29 25	27 26	34 28	19 19	23 20
1914. January-June July-December	20 23	25 25	23½ 26	27 29	25½ 27	29 311	23 27	28 30	26 28	32 32	19 22	23 23
1915. January-June July-December	23 25	29 27½	29 36	39 }	29 32	34 32}	29 32½	38	30 33½	37 36	22 23	26 271
January. March April May June.	26 28 29 30 30 30	29 30 31 31 31 31	38 39 39 39 39	39 40 40 40 40 40	32½ 33 33 34 34 34 34	33 33 33 35 35 35	32 34 36 36 36 36 36	35 36 37 37 37 37 38	35 <u>1</u> 36 36 37 37 37	36 36 40 40 38 38	25 26 26 27 27 27	261 27 28 28 28 28 28
January-June	26	31	38	41	321	35	32	38	351	40	25	28
July	30 30 30 31 34 35	31 31 31 34 35 38	41 44 43 43 44 45	44 44 44 46 50	35 35 36 36 37 40	36 37 37 36 40 47	37 39 39 39 42 43	39 59 40 42 44 46	38 39 39 40 40 45	40 40 41 42 45 52	27 27 27 29 31 32	28 28 28 31 33 37
July-December	30	38	41	50	35	47	37	46	38	52	27	37
January February March April May June	38 42 44 45 48 53	40 44 46 48 51 58	50 51 57 58 60 65	52 56 58 60 65 76	46 50 53 53 56 60	50 55 55 57 58 68	45 47 53 53 57 62	48 54 53 581 63 71	52 54 58 54 62 67	53 60 60 62 66 82	37 39 41 43 45 49	39 42 44 45 48 57
January-June	38	58	50	76	46	68	45	71	52	82	37	57
July	57 57 62 65 65 65	58 64 66 66 67 67	75 75 76 76 76 76 76	76 77 77 77 77 77	67 68 75 75 76 76	70 77 77 80 77	71 71 76 76 76 76 75	72 76 77 77 77 78 78	80 80 82 82 82 82 82	83 83 83 85 85	56 56 60 60 60	57 62 62 62 62 62 64
July-December	57	67	75	77	67	80	71	78	80	85	56	64

¹ Indiana quarter blood unwashed, 1912 and 1913.

TABLE 177 .- Wool: Wholesale price per pound in Boston, 1912-1917.—Continued.

			11		ń .		ı —				ı —	
Date.	tory,	Terri- staple ired.	um '	medi- Ferri- cloth- oured.	12 m	cas, onths, ired.	Te	fall, xas ired.	8uj	ed, A per, ired.	suj	ed, B er, red.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	I.ow.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. January-June July-December	Cts. 60 63	Cts. 65 67	Cts. 48 53	Cts. 55 59	Cts. 52. 54	Cts. 56 63	Cts. 42 43	Cts. 45 48	Cts. 45 52	Cts. 53 58	Cts. 41 48	Cts. 54 54
1913. January-June July-December	55 51	67 56	49 46	59 50	52 50	65 53	45 41	50 46	48 42	58 52	43 36	54 45
1914. January-June July-December	51 60	63 65	46 55	55 57	50 55	62 62	41 42	50 50	43 50	53 55	36 40	43 56
1915. January-June July-December	62 70	75 75	55 63	68 68	56 65	75 70	42 54	60 57	56 60	68 66	57 55	74 65
1916. January. February. March April May June.	73 77 80 80 80 80	77 80 80 80 82 85	65 70 70 70 70 72 73	69 71 71 71 75 75	67 68 72 72 72 72	70 75 75 75 75 75	53 53 54 54 54 54 54	55 55 55 55 55 55 55	63 65 65 65 65 65	66 68 68 68 68 63	59 60 60 60 60	65 65 65 65 65
January-June	73	85	65	75	67	77	53	55	63	68	59	66
July	82 82 85 88 95 100	88 88 92 95 105 112	75 75 75 75 75 77 85	77 77 78 80 87 87	77 80 80 80 80 85 87	83 83 85 85 90 100	55 57 57 57 57 63 63	58 58 58 58 58 65 78	65 66 66 66 66 72	72 72 72 72 72 73 85	60 63 63 63 60 70	68 68 68 71 73 80
July-December	82	112	75	87	77	100	55	78	65	85	60	80
1917. January. February. March April May June.	110 120 125 130 135 145	120 125 135 140 150 175	85 92 100 110 110 120	95 105 110 115 120 135	100 105 120 120 130 145	105 120 125 130 145 175	75 75 82 82 90 100	78 82 84 95 105 120	83 83 100 107 140 145	85 100 105 130 150 150	75 75 90 98 120 130	80 90 95 125 135 140
January-June	110	175	85	135	100	175	75	120	83	150	75	1 10
July	172 175 180 180 180 180	177 180 182 182 185 185	135 140 155 155 155 155 155	150 155 160 160 160 160	165 165 165 168 168 168	175 170 170 172 172 172	115 115 140 140 140 145	120 120 145 145 145 150	145 145 160 160 160 160	150 150 165 165 165 165	130 130 140 145 145 150	140 140 3 150 150
July-December	172	185	135	160	165	175	115	150	145	165	130	150

TABLE 178.—Wool: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1917.

		Bos	ton.	Philad	elph i a.	St. L	ouis.
De	ate.	Ohio was	XX,	Ohio wasi	XX,	Best was	
		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
January-June	112.	Cents. 28 30	Cents. 30 33	Cents. 25 28	Cents. 30 31	Cents. 27 35	Cents. 35 38
January-June	13.	27 25	32 30	24 22	31 25	28 28	37 35
January-June	114.	25 <u>1</u> 27	29 31½	22 25	28 29	28 31	33 33
January-June	15.	29 32	34 32 <u>4</u>	29 28	34 33½	31 40	41 44
January	16.	32 <u>4</u> 33	33	324 324	331	42	44
MarchApril		33 34 31	33 35 35	324 324 324 34	33 33 35 37	42 43 43 43	44 44 47
•		34	35 35	34	35 37	46	48
August September October		35 35 36 36 36 34	36 37 37 36 35	34 35 35 35 35 35	36 39 37 36 40	47 47 47 47 48	48 48 48 49 49
December		34	47	39	44	48	49
19	017.						<u> </u>
February		46 50 53 53 56 60	50 55 55 57 58 68	46 48 53 53 56 56	47 55 55 56 57 68	48 48 48 52 55 72	49 49 54 57 72 75
		46	68	46	68	48	75
August		67 68 75 75 76 76	70 77 77 80 77	65 68 75 75 75 75	70 77 77 80 80	75 80 80 83 83 83	80 83 85 85 85
		67	80	65	80	75	85

¹ One-fourth to three-eighths unwashed, 1912-1914.

TABLE 179.—Wool: International trade, calendar years 1909-1916.

["Wool" in this table includes: Washed, unwashed, scoured, and pulled wool; slipe, sheep's wool on skins (total weight of wool and skins taken); and all other animal fibers included in United States classification of wool. The following items have been considered as not within this classification: Corded, combed, and dyed wool; flocks, goatskins with hair on, mill waste, noils, and tops. See "General note," Table 152.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

County.	A verage, 1909–1913.	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)	County.	Average, 1909–1913.	1915 (prelim.)	1916 (prelim.)
From— Algeria. Argentina. Australia Belgium British India. British South Africa Chile.	676, 679 196, 440 56, 496 164, 644 28, 223	Pounds. 24, 828 259, 415 408, 631 59, 694 186, 331 31, 315	Pounds. 259, 387	From— New Zealand Persia. Peru. Russja. Spain United Kingdom. Uruguay.	Pounds. 194, 801 10, 023 9, 333 32, 406 28, 505 42, 027 139, 178	Pounds. 200, 102 6, 157 13, 007 12, 220 32, 151 83, 563	Pounds. 7, 403
ChinaFranceGermanyNetherlands	42,684 84,973 42,817 26,362	55, 868 11, 755 97	44, 980 22, 157	Other countries	67, 233 2, 190, 899	18,695	

IMPORTS.

Into-				Into-		
Austria-Hungary Belgium British India. Canada France Germany Japan Netherlands	300, 367 23, 721 7, 794 601, 628 481, 988	39, 286 16, 611 144, 631 52, 771 15, 715	19, 918 172, 314 40, 758 12, 698	Russia. Sweden. Switzerland. United Kingdom. United States. Other countries. Total.	58, 275	 !

SWINE.

TABLE 180.—Swine: Number and value on farms in the United States, 1867-1918.

Note.—Figures in italics are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of members are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available. It should also be observed that the census of 1910, giving numbers as of Apr. 15, is not strictly comparable with former censuses, which related to numbers June 1.

Jan. 1—	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.	Jan. 1—	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan 1.
1867 1868	24, 317, 000	\$4.03 3.29	\$99,637,000 79,976,000	1892. 1893.	52, 398, 000 46, 095, 000	\$4.60 6.41	\$241, 031, 000 295, 426, 000
1869 1870	23,316,000 26,751,000	4.65 5.80	108, 431, 000 155, 108, 000	1894 1895	45, 206, 000 44, 166, 000	5.98 4.97	270, 385, 000 219, 501, 000
1870, census, June 1	25, 134, 569		************	1896 1897	42, 843, 000 40, 600, 000	4.35 4.10	186, 530, 000 166, 273, 000
1871 1872		5.61	165, 312, 000 127, 453, 000	1898 1899 1900	39, 760, 000 38, 652, 000	4.39 4.40	174, 351, 000 170, 110, 000
1873 1874 1875	30, 861, 000	3.67 3.98 4.80	119, 632, 000 122, 695, 000 134, 581, 000	1900	37, 079, 000 62, 868, 041	5.00	185, 472, 000
1876 1877	25, 727, 000	6.00 5.66	154, 251, 000 158, 873, 000	1901 ¹	56, 982, 000 48, 699, 000	6.20 7.03	353, 012, 000 342, 121, 000
1878 1879	32, 262, 000 34, 766, 000	4.85 3.18	156, 577, 000 110, 508, 000	1903 1904	46,923,000 47,009,000	7. 78 6. 15	364, 974, 000 289, 225, 000
1880 1880, census,	34,034,000	4. 28	145, 782, 000	1905 1906	47, 321, 000 52, 103, 000	5. 99 6. 18	283, 255, 000 321, 803, 000
June 1 1881 1882	36, 248, 000	4.70	170, 535, 000	1907 1908	54, 794, 000 56, 084, 000	7. 62 6. 05	417, 791, 000 339, 030, 000
1883 1884	43, 270, 000	5.97 6,75 5.57	263, 543, 000 291, 951, 000 246, 301, 000	1909 1910 1910, census,	54, 147, 000 47, 782, 000	6. 55	354, 794, 000
1885 1886	45, 143, 000 46, 092, 000	5. 02 4. 26	226, 402, 000 196, 570, 000	A pr. 15	58, 185, 676 65, 620, 000	9. 17 9. 37	533, 309, 000 615, 170, 000
1887 1888	44, 613, 000 44, 347, 000	4.48 4.98	200, 043, 000 220, 811, 000	1912 1913	65, 410, 000 61, 178, 000	8.00 9.86	523, 328, 000 603, 109, 000
1889 1890	51, 603, 000	5. 79 4. 72	291, 307, 000 243, 418, 000	1914 1915	58, 933, 000 61, 618, 000	10.40 9.87	612, 951, 000 637, 479, 000
1800, census, June 1 1891	57, 409, 583	4. 15	210, 194, 000	1916 1917 1918.	67, 766, 000 67, 503, 000 71, 374, 000	8. 40 11. 75 19. 51	569, 573, 000 792, 898, 000 1, 392, 276, 000

¹ Estimates of numbers revised, based on census data.

Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

SWINE-Continued.

TABLE 181.—Swinc: Number and value on farms Jan. 1, 1917 and 1918, by States.

State.	Numbe sands)	r (thou- Jan. 1—	Average head J	price per an. 1—	Farm values of Jan	ue (thou- dollars). . l—
	1918	1917	1918	1917	1918	1917
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island	100	100	\$23.00	\$16.60	\$2,300	\$1,660
	56	53	25.00	15.60	1,400	827
	120	113	22.20	13.00	2,664	1,459
	113	112	23.00	15.00	2,599	1,680
	16	14	25.00	14.50	400	203
Connecticut. New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware.	64	58	26.00	17.50	1,664	1,015
	842	759	23.60	14.70	19,871	11,157
	174	163	26.20	17.00	4,559	2,771
	1,291	1,174	22.30	13.90	28,789	16,319
	64	58	17.00	11.60	1,068	673
Maryland Virginia West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina	398	359	16.00	11.50	6,208	4, 128
	1,105	1,023	13.90	9.20	15,360	9, 412
	422	380	16.00	10.00	6,752	3, 800
	1,464	1,450	17.10	9.70	25,034	14, 065
	966	920	15.50	9.50	14,973	8, 740
Georgia	2,766	2,585	14.50	9.00	40, 107	23, 265
	1,375	1,100	10.60	6.50	14, 575	7, 150
	3,774	3,527	20.50	12.20	77, 367	43, 029
	4,168	3,970	20.20	11.50	84, 194	45, 655
	5,111	4,444	22.00	13.70	112, 442	60, 883
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri.	1,372	1,345	19.80	12.40	27, 166	16,678
	2,019	2,060	22.30	14.30	45, 024	29,458
	2,241	2,075	23.50	14.50	52, 664	30,088
	10,307	9,370	24.20	14.70	249, 429	137,739
	4,708	4,280	18.50	10.00	87, 098	42,800
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky	507	650	20.80	13.00	10,546	8, 450
	1,504	1,432	23.50	15.50	35,344	22, 196
	4,200	4,200	24.40	14.00	102,480	58, 800
	2,560	2,535	21.00	12.30	53,760	31, 180
	1,716	1,589	14.50	8.90	24,882	14, 142
Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippl Louisiana Texas.	1,631	1,485	15.00	8. 40	24,510	12, 474
	2,128	1,850	14.50	8. 50	30,856	15, 725
	1,902	1,698	15.00	7. 50	28,530	12, 735
	1,568	1,584	13.60	9. 20	21,325	14, 573
	3,068	8,229	14.10	9. 50	43,259	30, 676
Oklahoma	1,219	1,325	17.00	10. 20	20, 723	13, 515
	1,643	1,550	13.50	8. 20	22, 180	12, 710
	215	269	20.50	12. 00	4, 408	8, 228
	54	60	20.50	11. 20	1, 107	672
	356	352	20.00	12. 00	7, 120	4, 224
New Mexico	86	101	15.70	10.50	1,350	1,060
	64	80	18.00	13.00	1,152	1,040
	102	101	20.00	10.50	2,040	1,060
	37	37	19.00	11.00	703	407
Idaho	219	292	19.00	10.40	4, 161	3,037
	283	283	20.00	11.10	5, 660	3,141
	309	315	17.50	10.00	5, 408	3,150
	974	994	17.50	10.10	17, 045	10,039
United States	71,374	67, 503	19.51	11.75	1,392,276	792, 899

SWINE-Continued.

TABLE 182.—Hogs (live): Wholesale price per 100 pounds, 1912-1917.

	Cinci	nnati.	8t. I	ouis.	Chic	ago.				
Date.		ng, fair ood.	Mixed	packers.		d and ters.	Kansa	s City.	Om	aha
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
JanJune July-Dec	\$6. 10 7. 10	\$8. 25 9. 35	\$5. 75 7. 15	\$8.05 9.25	\$5. 55. 6. 80	\$8. 17½ 9. 40	\$5. 65 6. 90	\$8.05 9.05		
JanJune July-Dec	7. 35 7. 40	10.00 9.60	7. 20 7. 25	9. 50 9. 50	6.85 7.00	9. 70 9. 65	6.95 7.20	9. 25 9. 25	\$7.02 7.84	\$ 9. 05 9. 15
JanJune July-Dec	8. 00 6. 40	9. 15 9. 90	7. 65 6. 80	9.00 10.00	7. 60 6. 00	9.00 10.20	7. 55 6. 65	8. 80 9. 75	7. 50 6. 50	8. 72 9. 35
1915. JanJune July-Dec	6. 50 6. 25	8. 00 8. 40	6. 55 6. 15	7. 97½ 8. 75	6. 15 5. 80	7. 95 8. 95	6, 35 6, 00	7. 90 8. 65	6.00 4.00	7. 95 8. 95
1916. January		8. 10 8. 95 10. 20 9. 95 10. 15 9. 80	6. 00 7. 50 7. 90 9. 15 9. 00 9. 00	8. 25 8. 921 •10. 10 10. 00 10. 25 10. 10	6. 50 7. 50 8. 65 9. 10 9. 30 8. 70	8. 10 8. 90 10. 10 10. 10 10. 30 10. 15	6. 25 7. 40 8. 40 9. 05 9. 15 8. 90	8. 00 8. 50 9. 80 9. 90 10. 05 10. 00	6. 00 7. 20 8. 00 8. 90 9. 00 8. 80	7. 80 8. 55 9. 65 9. 85 9. 90 9. 80
JanJune	6. 75	10. 20	6.00	10. 25	6. 50	10.30	6. 25	10.05	6.00	9. 90
July	9. 55 9. 85 10. 15 9. 00 9. 25 9. 50	9. 95 11. 30 11. 50 10. 35 10. 05 10. 75	9. 35 9. 25 9. 50 8, 90 9. 35 9. 35	10. 25 11. 50 11. 50 10. 50 10. 95 10. 80	9, 00 8, 85 9, 25 8, 50 8, 75 8, 90	10. 25 11. 55 11. 60 10. 55 10. 25 10. 80	9. 10 9. 30 7. 75 8. 75 9. 00 9. 35	10. 10 11. 00 10. 50 10. 40 10. 15 10. 60	9. 00 8. 50 9. 25 8. 50 9. 00 9. 00	10. 00 10. 85 11. 10 10. 15 10. 15
June-Dec	9.00	11.50	8.90	11. 50	8, 50	11. 60	7.75	11.00	8. 50	11. 10
1917. January February March April May June	11. 85 13. 20 15. 25 15. 35	11. 35 12. 75 15. 25 16. 10 16. 25 15. 75	9. 90 11. 75 10. 30 14. 65 15. 25 15. 20	12. 00 13. 70 15. 50 16. 40 16. 55 16. 05	9. 75 11. 25 12. 85 14. 65 15. 00 14. 15	12. 00 13. 55 15. 50 16. 45 16. 60 16. 15	9. 80 11. 40 12. 75 14. 50 14. 50	11. 80 13. 25 15. 15 16. 30 16. 45 15. 95	9. 40 11. 00 12. 85 14. 45 14. 40 14. 40	11, 65 13, 30 15, 05 16, 20 16, 00 15, 75
JanJune	10.60	16. 25	9. 90	16. 55	9. 75	16, 60	9. 80	16. 45	9. 40	16. 20
July	16.00 18.00 15.40	15. 65 19. 00 18. 75 19. 15 17. 25 17. 40	15. 00 15. 50 16. 00 15. 50 16. 25 15. 85	16. 12½ 19. 8Q 19. 35 19. 75 18. 00 17. 80	14. 00 14. 50 16. 50 14. 25 15. 75 15. 40	16. 30 20. 00 19. 70 19. 65 18. 10 17. 75	14. 50 14. 50 17. 00 15. 00 14. 75 15. 00	16. 60 19. 35 19. 50 19. 65 17. 85 17. 70	14. 00 14. 60 16. 25 15. 30 16. 20 15. 75	15. 65 19. 60 19. 45 19. 50 17. 90 17. 45
July-Dec	15. 40	19. 15	15.00	19. 80	14.00	20.00	14. 50	19. 65	14.00	19.69

THE FEDERAL MEAT INSPECTION.

Some of the principal facts connected with the Federal meat inspection as administered by the Bureau of Animal Industry are shown in the following tables. The figures cover the annual totals for the fiscal years 1907 to 1917, inclusive, the former being the first year of operations under the meat-inspection law now in force. The data given comprise the number of establishments at which inspection is conducted; the number of animals of each species inspected at slaughter; the number of each species condemned, both wholly and in part, and the percentage condemned of each species and of all animals; the quantity of meat products prepared or processed under Federal supervision, and the quantity and percentage of the latter condemned.

Further details of the Federal meat inspection are published each year in the Annual Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry.

Table 183.—Number of establishments and total number of animals inspected at slaughter under Federal inspection annually, 1907 to 1917.

Fiscal year.	Estab- lish- ments.	Cattle.	Calves.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	All animals.
1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	708 787 876 919 936 940 910 893 896 875 883	7,621,717 7,116,275 7,325,337 7,962,189 7,781,030 7,532,005 7,155,816 6,724,117 6,964,402 7,404,288 9,209,489	1,763,574 1,995,487 2,046,711 2,295,099 2,219,908 2,242,929 2,098,484 1,814,904 1,735,902 2,048,022 2,048,022	31, 815, 900 35, 113, 077 35, 427, 931 27, 656, 021 29, 916, 363 34, 966, 378 32, 287, 538 33, 289, 705 36, 247, 958 40, 482, 799 40, 210, 847	9, 681, 876 9, 702, 545 10, 802, 903 11, 149, 937 13, 005, 502 14, 208, 724 14, 724, 465 14, 958, 834 12, 909, 089 11, 985, 926 11, 343, 418	52, 149 45, 953 69, 193 115, 811 54, 145 63, 983 56, 556 121, 827 165, 533 180, 356 174, 649	50, 935, 211 53, 973, 33 55, 672, 07 49, 179, 05 52, 976, 94 59, 014, 01 56, 322, 85 56, 909, 38 58, 022, 88 62, 101, 39 63, 708, 14

TABLE 184.—Condemnations of animals at slaughter, 1907-1917.

		Cattle.			Calves.		Swine.			
Fiscal year.	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	
1907 1908 1909 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1914 1915 1916	33, 216 35, 103 42, 426 39, 402 50, 363 50, 775 48, 356 52, 496	93, 174 67, 482 99, 739 122, 167 123, 969 134, 783 130, 139 138, 085 178, 409 188, 915 249, 637	1.58 1.41 1.84 2.07 2.10 2.46 2.53 2.77 3.32 3.33 3.53	6,414 5,854 8,213 7,524 7,654 8,927 9,216 6,696 5,941 6,681 10,112	245 396 409 500 781 1,212 1,377 1,234 1,750 1,988 2,927	0.38 .31 .42 .35 .38 .45 .50 .44 .44 .42	105, 879 127, 933 86, 912 52, 439 59, 477 129, 002 173, 937 204, 942 213, 905 195, 107 158, 480	436, 161 636, 589 799, 300 726, 829 877, 528 323, 992 373, 993 422, 275 464, 217 546, 290 528, 288	1.70 2.18 2.50 2.82 3.13 1.30 1.70 1.88 1.87 1.83	
	Sheep.			Goats.			All animals.			
Fiscal year.	Whole.	Part.	Per cent l	Whole.	Part.	Per	Whole.	Part.	Per	

		ьисер.			Goats.		An animais,			
Fiscal year.	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	
1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917	9, 524 8, 090 10, 747 11, 127 10, 789 15, 402 16, 657 20, 563 17, 611 15, 057 16, 749	296 198 179 24,714 7,394 3,871 939 1,564 298 1,007 437	0. 10 .09 .10 .32 .14 .13 .12 .15 .14 .13	42 33 82 226 61 84 76 746 653 663 1,349	1 1 1 1 8 14 161 42	0.08 .07 .12 .19 .11 .13 .14 .62 .40 .46 .80	149, 792 175, 126 141, 057 113, 742 117, 383 203, 778 250, 661 281, 303 290, 606 275, 087 265, 396	529, 876 704, 666 899, 628 874, 211 1,009, 672 463, 859 506, 449 563, 166 644, 688 733, 361 781, 331	1. 33 1. 63 1. 87 2. 01 2. 13 1. 13 1. 34 1. 48 1. 61 1. 63 1. 64	

¹ Includes both whole and parts. It should be understood that the parts here recorded are primal parts; a much larger number of less important parts, especially in swine, are condemned in addition.

Table 185.—Quantity of meat and meat food products prepared, and quantity and percentage condemned, under Federal supervision annually, 1907 to 1917.

Fiscal year.	Prepared or processed.	Con- demned.	Per- centage con- demned.	Fiscal year.	Prepared or processed.	Con- demned.	Per- centage con- demned.
1907	Pounds. 4, 464, 213, 208 5, 958, 298, 364 6, 791, 437, 032 6, 223, 964, 563 6, 934, 233, 214 7, 279, 558, 956	Pounds. 14, 874, 587 43, 344, 206 24, 679, 754 19, 031, 808 21, 073, 577 18, 096, 587	0.33 .73 .36 .31 .31	1913	Pounds. 7, 094, 809, 809 7, 033, 295, 975 7, 533, 070, 002 7, 474, 242, 192 7, 663, 633, 957	Pounds. 18, 851, 930 19, 135, 469 18, 780, 122 17, 897, 367 19, 857, 270	. 27 . 27 . 25 . 24 . 28

The principal items in Table 185, in the order of magnitude, are: Cured pork, lard, lard substitute, sausage, and oleo products. The list includes a large number of less important items.

It should be understood that the above products are entirely separate and additional to the carcass inspection at time of slaughter. They are, in fact, reinspections of such portions of the carcass as have subsequently undergone some process of manufacture.

Table 186.—Quantity of meat and meat food products imported, and quantity and percentage condemned or refused entry, 1914 to 1917.

Fiscal year.	Total imported.	Con- demned.	Refused entry.	Percentage condemned or refused entry.
1914 (9 months) 1915 1916 1917	Pounds. 197, 389, 348 245, 023, 437 110, 514, 476 29, 138, 996	Pounds. 551, 859 2,020, 291 298, 276 382, 160	Pounds. 70, 454 113, 907 14, 611	Per cent. 0.28 .85 .37 1.36

MISCELLANEOUS DATA.

Table 187.—Estimated value of farm products, 1879-1917.

[Based on prices at the farm.]

		Crops			Animals and animal products.		
Year.	Total, gross.	Value.	Percent- age of total.	Value.	Percent- age of total.		
1879 (census). 1889 (census). 1897. 1898. 1899 (census). 1900. 1901. 1901. 1902. 1903. 1904. 1905. 1906. 1907. 1908. 1909 (census). 1909 (census). 1910. 1911. 1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916. 1917 (preliminary).	## 1,400, 107, 454 ## 3,960, 821, 685 ## 4,338, 945, 829 ## 717, 069, 973 ## 5,009, 565, 006 ## 5,302, 120, 039 ## 5,594, 645, 072 ## 6,121, 778, 901 ## 6,273, 997, 382 ## 6,764, 210, 423 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 6,764, 210, 423 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 6,764, 210, 423 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 6,764, 210, 423 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 8,568, 161, 223 ## 6,764, 210, 423 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 8,568, 161, 223 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 7,896, 625, 522 ## 7,896, 625, 625 ## 7,896, 625, 625 ## 7,896, 625, 625 ## 7,896, 625	\$2, 519, 082, 592 2, 759, 569, 547 2, 998, 704, 412 3, 191, 941, 763 3, 385, 179, 114 3, 578, 416, 465 3, 771, 653, 816 4, 012, 652, 758 4, 263, 134, 353 4, 761, 111, 1839 5, 098, 292, 549 6, 487, 167, 283 5, 562, 088, 150 5, 562, 088, 150 6, 132, 758, 962 6, 111, 684, 020 6, 107, 186, 742 9, 054, 458, 922	63. 6 63. 6 63. 6 63. 7 63. 8 64. 0 64. 1 65. 0 64. 6 64. 6 64. 6 64. 6 64. 6 62. 3 61. 8 61. 1 67. 5 70. 0	\$1, 441, 799, 993 1, 579, 376, 282 1, 718, 365, 561 1, 817, 652, 243 1, 916, 940, 925 2, 016, 228, 925 2, 115, 516, 288 2, 140, 102, 135 2, 261, 344, 504 2, 501, 076, 970 2, 728, 876, 783 2, 792, 332, 973 3, 507, 600, 600 3, 716, 755, 549 3, 585, 599, 700 3, 716, 755, 549 3, 783, 275, 511 3, 868, 303, 670 4, 351, 905, 889 5, 833, 857, 951	36. 4 36. 36. 36. 36. 36. 36. 36. 36. 36. 36.		

TABLE 188.—Tonnage carried on railways in the United States, 1914-1916.1

Personal	Yee	r ending June	30—
Product.	1914	1915	1916
FARM PRODUCTS. Animal matter: Animals, live	Short tons. 14,811,000	Short tons. 15,021,432	Short tona. 16, 963, 922
Packing-house products— Dressed meats Hides (including leather). Other packing-house products.	2,283,000 1,081,000 2,375,000	2,503,317 1,149,930 2,540,376	2, 656, 235 1, 400, 858 2, 774, 708
Total packing-house products	5, 739, 000	6, 193, 623	6, 831, 801
Poultry (including game and fish)	915, 000 409, 000 5, 264, 000	861, 670 370, 426 4, 212, 584	1, 016, 484 503, 248 4, 629, 143
Total animal matter	27, 138, 000	26, 659, 735	29, 944, 598
Vegetable matter: Cotton Fruit and vegetables	4,141,000 16,795,000	5,012,705 17,898,288	4, 052, 241 18, 192, 063
Grain and grain products— Grain. Grain products— Flour. Other grain products.	9.697.000	53, 446, 686 9, 596, 763 8, 036, 745	57, 686, 169 10, 472, 225 7, 992, 496
Total grain and grain products	63, 536, 000	71,080,194	76, 150, 886
Hay Sugar Tobacco Other vegetable matter	7, 319, 000 3, 926, 000 1, 071, 000 9, 338, 000	7, 649, 093 3, 727, 194 1, 051, 648 10, 347, 913	7,312,879 3,917,381 1,085,843 8,988,002
Total vegetable matter	106, 126, 000	116, 767, 035	119, 699, 295
Total farm products	133, 264, 000	143, 426, 770	149, 643, 803
OTHER FREIGHT. Products of mines. Products of forests. Manufactures. All other (including all freight in less than carload lots)	626,076,000 110,878,000 145,257,000 78,649,000	556, 581, 950 93, 971, 282 132, 410, 447 76, 013, 494	706, 029, 210 106, 856, 873 182, 916, 449 92, 776, 482

¹ Compiled from reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Original shipments only, excluding reight received by each railway from connecting railways and other carriers. Figures exclude the relatively small tonnage originating on railroads of Class III (roads having operating revenues of less than \$100,000 a year).

TABLE 189.—Rural and agricultural population in various countries.

	R	ural populat	ion.	Po ulation dependent upon agriculture.		
Country.	Year.	Number.	Per cent of total popula- tion.	Year.	Number.	Per cent of total popula- tion.
United States	1910	49, 348, 883	53, 7			
Austro-Hungary: AustriaHungary				1900 1900	13, 447, 362 13, 061, 118	51. 4 67. 8
Total Austro-Hungary				1900	26, 508, 480	58. 4
Belgium British India British India Bulgaria Denmark Finland France Germany Norway Portugal Roumania	1911	1,647,350 22,715.011		1901 1905 1911 1900 1891 1907 1900 1900	191, 691, 731 3,089, 301 1,023,962 1,555,357 17,435,888 17,089,496 854,787 3,367,199	65. 1 76. 6 37. 1 57. 3 45. 7 27. 7 38. 5 62. 1
Russia: Caucasus Central Asis Poland Russia proper Siberia.				1897 1897 1897 1897 1897	7, 266, 428 6, 361, 466 5, 302, 850 69, 470, 360 4, 448, 456	78. 2 82. 1 56. 4 74. 3 77. 2
Total Russia	ļ			1897	92, 849, 560	73. 9
Serbia Sweden. Switzerland. Unitzer Kingdom:		1,047,795	31. 6	1900 1900 1900	2,097,988 2,344,612 1,067,905	84. 2 45. 6 32. 2
England and Wales	1911	7, 907, 556	21.9			

 $\textbf{T}_{\texttt{ABLE}} \ 190. - \textit{Number} \ \textit{of persons engaged in agriculture in various countries}.$

		Ma	des.	Femi	ales.	Total pe gaged i ture.	rsons en- n agricul-
Country.	Year.	Number.	Per cent of males in all occupa- tions.	Number.	Per cent of females in all occupa- tions.	Number.	Per cent of persons in all occupa- tions.
United States	1910	10, 582, 039	35. 2	1, 806, 584	22. 4	12, 388, 623	32.5
Algeria	1881	636,078	74.8	91,602	53.7	727,680	71.3
Argentina	1895	318, 149	28.0	67, 174	13. 4	385, 323	23.6
Australia	1901	377,626	29. 5	39,029	11.1	416,655	25.6
Austria-Hungary	1900	8, 185, 250	58. 5	5, 935, 805	70. 3	14, 121, 055	63.0
Belgium	1900	533 , 665	23.6	163, 707	17.6	697, 372	21.9
Bolivia	1900	40 000 005				564,009	43.5 67.1
British India British North Borneo	1901	63,026,365	67.3	27, 867, 210	66.5	90, 893, 575	64.2
	1901	one one		007 400		32, 892 1, 732, 612	82.4
Bulgaria	1905	895, 206	73.3	837, 406	94. 9		30.9
Canada	1901	707, 997 745, 074	45.4	8,940	3.7	716,937 1,063,625	65.1
CeylonChile	1901	448, 546	65.0 50.3	318, 551 21, 877	65.4	470, 423	37.7
Cuba	1907 1907	364, 821			6.2	367, 921	47.6
Cyprus	1901	33,611	52. 2 62. 8	3, 110 2, 757	4. 2 20. 8	36, 368	54.5
Denmark	1911	386, 016	45.7	110, 169	28.5	496, 185	40.3
Egypt	1907	2, 258, 005	67.2	57,144	33.3	2,315,149	65.6
Federated Malay States	1901	115,027	28.2	52, 324	82.7	167, 351	35.5
Finland	1900	321,538	51.4	102,008	39.6	423, 546	48.0
Formosa.	1905	763, 456	70.6	263, 664	82.4	1,027,120	73.3
France	1906	5, 452, 392	41.9	3, 324, 661	43. 2	8,777,053	42.4
Germany.	1907	5, 146, 723	27.7	4, 585, 749	48.3	9,732,472	34.6
Greece	1907	321, 120	47.3	6,972	12.2	328,092	44.6
Grenada	1901	8, 816	57. 1	7,722	49.7	16, 538	53.4
taly	1901	6,370,277	57.9	3, 196, 063	60.5	9, 566, 340	58.8
Jamaica	1911				55.5	271, 493	66.1
Malta and Gozo	1901	10, 235	13.3	3,613	15. 8	13, 848	13.9
Mauritius	1901	72, 493	57. 1	5,989	38.0	78, 482	55.0
Netherlands	1899	490, 694	32. 9	79, 584	18.4	570, 278	29.6
New Zealand	1911	103, 644	28.5	7,472	8.3	111, 116	24. 5
Norway	1910			1	l	307, 528	33.4
Philippine Islands	1903	1, 163, 777	57.8	90, 286	8.8	1, 254, 063	41.3
Porto Rico	1899	196, 893	73.3	1,868	3.9	198, 761	62.5
Portugal	1900	1,127,268	65. 3	380, 293	52.0	1,507,561	61.4
D							
Russia:	400=	** ***				16 700 600	
In Europe	1897	13, 808, 505	59.6	1,974,164	38.0	15, 782, 669	55.6
In Asia	1897	2,092,965	69. 2	105, 137	30.5	2, 198, 102	65.3
Total	1897	15, 901, 470	60. 7	2,079,301	37.5	17, 980, 771	56.7
Total	1091	10, 901, 470	00.7	2.019,301	37.3	11,800.111	30.7
St. Lucia	1901					15, 796	54.1
Serbia	1900	311,700	65. 5	13 594	50. 5	325, 224	61.7
Sierra Leone	1901	8,705	28.7	13, 524 4, 544	21.7	13, 249	25.9
Spain	1900	3, 741, 730	58.1	775, 270	51.8	4, 517, 000	56.9
Sweden.	1900	761,016	52.4	333, 264	53.8	1,094,280	52.8
Switzerland.	1900	392, 971	37. 1	80, 326	16.1	473. 297	30.4
Trinidad and Tobago	1901	51,744	54.7	25, 765	39.3	77, 509	48.4
Union of South Africe							65. 1
							12.4
Union of South Africa United Kingdom	1901 1904 1901	863, 223 2, 109, 812	56. 3 16. 3	847, 057 152, 642	77. 5 2. 9	1,710,280 2,262,454	65

TABLE 191.—Total area and agricultural land in various countries. [As classified and reported by the International Institute of Agriculture.]

			Productive	land.1	Cultivated	land.2
Country.	Year.	Total area.	Amount.	Per cent of total area.	Amount. Acres. 293, 794, 000 19, 880, 000 442, 000 778, 000 44, 446, 000 2, 557, 000 35, 178, 000 61, 450, 000 3, 552, 000 8, 574, 000 63, 689, 000 33, 815, 000 63, 689, 000 33, 815, 000 63, 689, 000 33, 815, 000 63, 689, 000 341, 291, 000 65, 777, 000 14, 529, 000 9, 144, 000 605, 000 14, 587, 000 3, 275, 000 17, 862, 000 264, 858, 000	Per cent of total area.
NORTH AMERICA. United States	1910	Acres. 1,903,269,000	Acres. 878, 789, 000	Per cent. 46.2		Per cent. 15.4
CanadaCosta RicaCuba	1901 1909-10 1899	2,397,082,000 13,343,000 28,299,000	63, 420, 000 3, 090, 000 8, 717, 000	2. 6 23. 2 30. 8	19,880,000 442,000 778,000	. 8 3. 3 2. 3
SOUTH AMERICA. Argentina. Chile 3 Uruguay.	1909-10 1910-11 1908	729,575,000 187,145,000 46,189,000	537, 805, 000 15, 144, 000 40, 875, 000	73. 7 8. 1 88. 5	44,446,000 2,557,000 1,962,000	6. 1 1. 4 4. 2
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary	1911 1910	74, 132, 000 80, 272, 000	69,939,000 77,225,000	94. 3 96. 2	26, 272, 000 35, 178, 000	35. 4 43. 8
Total Austria-Hungary		154,404,000	147, 164, 000	95. 3	61, 450, 000	39.8
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark Finland France Germany Italy Luxemburg Netherlands Norway Portugal Roumania Russia, European Serbia Spain Sweden Switzerland	1895 1910 1907 1901 1910 1900 1911 1911 1911	7, 278, 000 23, 807, 000 9, 622, 000 82, 113, 000 130, 851, 000 133, 554, 000 70, 830, 000 8, 057, 000 79, 810, 000 22, 018, 000 32, 107, 000 1, 278, 203, 000 11, 936, 000 124, 666, 000 110, 667, 000 10, 211, 000	6, 443, 000 18, 959, 000 9, 078, 000 123, 642, 000 126, 401, 000 65, 164, 000 7, 258, 000 22, 942, 000 17, 281, 000 24, 645, 000 698, 902, 000 698, 902, 000 698, 902, 000 7, 635, 000	88. 5 79. 6 94. 3 94. 5 94. 6 92. 0 96. 4 90. 1 28. 7 78. 5 76. 6 54. 7 52. 3 90. 4 58. 9 74. 8	3, 582, 000 8, 574, 000 6, 376, 000 3, 875, 000 59, 124, 000 63, 689, 000 3, 815, 000 2, 210, 000 1, 530, 000 245, 755, 000 245, 755, 000 41, 201, 000 9, 144, 000 605, 000	49.2 38.6 66.4 47.47.47.46.6 27.2 28.19.21.33.8.5.5
United Kingdom: Great Britain Ireland	1911 1911	56, 802, 000 20, 350, 000	47, 737, 000 18, 789, 000	84.0 92.3	14,587,000 3,275,000	25. 1 16. 1
Total United Kingdom		77, 152, 000	66, 526, 000	86. 2	17,862,000	23. 2
ASIA. British India	1910-11 1911 1911 1911	615, 695, 000 8, 858, 000 94, 495, 000 4, 028, 001, 000	465, 706, 000 1, 972, 000 74, 180, 000 715, 838, 000	75. 6 22. 3 78. 5 17. 8	264,858,000 1,884,000 17,639,000 33,860,000	43.4 21.3 18.7
	1910	194 078 000	50 946 000	40.7	11 424 000	9. :
Algeria. Egypt. Tunis Union of South Africa.	1910 1912 1912 1909–10	124,976,000 222,390,000 30,888,000 302,827,000	50,846,000 5,486,000 22,239,000 3,569,000	2. 5 72. 0 1. 2	11,434,000 5,457,000 6,919,000 3,385,000	22. 4 1. 1
OCEANIA.						1
Australia	1910-11 1910	1,903,664,000 66,469,000	119, 942, 000 57, 310, 000	6. 3 86. 2	14,987,000 6,955,000	10.
Total, 38 countries		15,071,209,000	4,591,691,000	30.5	1,313,832,000	8.

¹ Includes besides cultivated land, also natural meadows and pastures, forests, woodlots, and lands devoted to cultivated trees and shrubs.

² Includes fallow lands; also artificial grass lands.

³ The figure for "productive land" in Chile excludes marshes, heaths, and productive but uncared-for

lands.
4 The figure for "cultivated land" in Switzerland excludes artificial meadows and pastures.

NATIONAL FORESTS.

Table 192.—National forests: Timber disposed of, quantity, price, and number of users, revenue under specified heads, and details of grazing privileges, years ended June 30, 1912 to 1917. [Reported by the Forest Service.]

	(Incport			· J				
	Year ended June 30—							
Item.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917		
Free timber given: Number of users Timber cut. M ft. Value. dolls. Timber sales:	38. 749 123, 233 196, 335	38, 264 121, 750 191, 825	39, 466 120, 575 183, 223	40, 040 123, 259 206, 597	42, 055 119, 483 184, 715	41,427 113,073 149,302		
Number	5, 772 799, 417 2. 00	6, 182 2, 137, 311 2. 01	8, 303 1, 540, 084 2, 30	10,905 1,093,589 2.44	10, 840 906, 906 1. 98	11,608 2,006,087 1,85		
Grazing: Number of permits	26, 501	27, 466	28,945	30,610	33, 328	36, 638		
Kinds of stock— Cattle No. Goats No. Hogs No. Horses No. Sheep No.	1,403,025 83,849 4,330 95,343 7,467,890	1, 455, 922 76, 898 3, 277 97, 919 7, 790, 953	1,508,639 58,616 3,381 108,241 7,560,186	1,627,321 51,409 2,792 96,933 7,232,276	1,758,764 43,268 2,968 98,903 7,843,205	1,953,198 49,939 2,306 98,380 7,586,034		
TotalNo	9,054,437	9, 424, 969	9, 239, 063	9, 010, 731	9,747,108	9, 090, 357		
Special use and water-power permitsNo	4,967	5, 245	5, 089	5, 657	5,251	6,087		
Revenue: From— Timber salesdolls	994,314	1, 282, 647	1, 243, 195	1, 211, 985	1, 367, 111	1,595,873		
Timber settlements,1 _ dollars	33, 287	36, 105	39, 927	3, 181	2, 299	17,102		
Penalties for timber trespassdolls Turpentine sales,	40, 291	17, 558	12,981	7,284	87,712	18,870		
dollars	21, 810 48, 249 962, 175	5,028 67,278 1,001,156	15,372 7,950 68,773 997,583	8,915 661 78,691 1,130,175	14,402 5,471 85,235 1,202,405	8, 156 52, 514 108, 329 1, 544, 714		
Grazing trespass, dollars	6, 667 50, 563	6, 583 51, 235	4,765 47,164	5,818 89,104	7,810 101,096	5, 0 31 106, 3 89		
Total revenue.dolls	2, 157, 356	2, 467, 590	2, 437, 710	12, 535, 814	2, 823, 541	3,457,028		

Includes timber taken in the exercise of permits for rights of way, development of power, etc.
 Prior to 1914 receipts from sale of turpentine were included with timber sales.
 Including under "Special use" prior to 1912.
 Refunds during year, \$54,575.

TABLE 193.—Area of national forest lands, June 30, 1917.

[Reported by Forest Service.]

State and forest.	Net area.	State and forest.	Net area.
Alaska:	Acres.	Idaho:	Acres.
Chugach	5, 418, 753	Boise	1,058,941
Tongass	15, 451, 716	Cache 1	513.617
		Caribou 1.	681, 540 1, 259, 237 785, 108
Total	20, 870, 469	Challis	1, 259, 237
• •		Clearwater	785, 103
Arizona:	1 100 700	Coeur d'Alene	662, 611
Apache	1, 182, 782	Idaho Kaniksu ¹ Lemhi Minidoka ¹	1, 193, 439 198, 757 1, 095, 924
Chiricahua ¹	348, 157 1, 601, 598 959, 304	Tombi	1 005 004
Coronado	050 304	Minidoka I	509, 536
Crook	870, 130	Nez Perce.	1, 624, 582
Dixie 1	17 680	Palisade 1	283, 495
Kaibab.	1,072,375 27,708 1,433,366	Payette	831, 926
Manzano 1	27, 708	Pend Oreille	676, 014
Manzano 1. Prescott	1, 433, 366	St. Joe	493, 925
Sitgreaves	659, 337	Salmon	1,621,707
Tonto	1, 994, 239 1, 602, 750	Sawtooth	1, 203, 387
Tusayan	1,602,750	Selway. Targhee ¹ Weiser	1,693,711
		Targhee 1	694, 352
Total	11, 769, 426	Weiser	562, 609
Arkansas:		Total	17, 644, 413
Arkansas	626, 746	1	
Ozark	291, 840	Michigan: Michigan	89, 466
Total	918, 586		
A 114 .		Minnesota:	
California:	000 000	Minnesota	190,602
Angeles	820, 980	Superior	857, 255
California	807, 444	m 4.3	
Cleveland	547, 981	Total	1.047,857
Fidorada l	40,911	Mantana	
Eldorado ¹ Inyo ¹	46, 977 549, 392 1, 269, 980	Montana: Absaroka	040 467
Klamath 1	1, 470, 841	Beartooth	842, 467 662, 537
Lassen	936, 877	Beaverhead	1, 337, 223
Modoc	1, 182, 986	Bitterroot	1,047,012
Mono 1	784, 620	Blackfeet	865, 077
Monterey	316,058	Cabinet	830, 676
Plumas	1, 144, 835	Custer	428, 922
Santa BarbaraSequoia	1,688,571	Deerlodge	833, 178
Sequoia	2, 194, 926	Flathead	1,802,905
Shasta	803, 448 1, 489, 934	Gallatin	564, 855
Sierra	1, 489, 934	Helena.	687, 983 1, 039, 766
Siskiyou 1	349, 069	Jefferson	1, 039, 766
Stanislaus. Tahoe ¹	810, 399	Kootenai	1, 336, 061
Trinity	542, 226	Lewis and Clark	811, 161
Trinity	1, 430, 547	Lolo	850, 677
Total	19, 188, 091	Madison	958, 691 1,031, 529 96, 743
10,000	10, 100, 001	Sioux 1	1,031,529
Colorado:		Stoux	90,743
Arapahoe	634, 903	Total	16,027,463
Battlement	651, 227	- 5000	20,021,100
Cochetopa Colorado Durango	905, 723	Nebraska:	
Colorado	847,323	Nebraska	206,074
Durango	614, 129		
(innigon	908, 055	Nevada:	
Hayden 1	65, 598	Dixie 1 Eldorado 1	282,543
Holy Cross. La Sal 1	576, 905	Eldorado 1	400
La Sal 1	27, 444 934, 017	Humboldt	69 0, 562
Leadville	934, U17	Inyo¹. Mono¹. Nevada.	72,817
Montezuma Pike	700, 082 1, 080, 381	Mono!	464, 315
Die Chunde	1, 136, 884	Ruby	1,220,929 342,405
Routt	833, 459	Santa Rosa.	942,405
Routt	508 019	Tahoo l	269, 658
San Juan	598, 912 617, 995	Tahoe 1	14,853 1,907,286
Sopris	596, 986	20syave	1,001,200
Uncompahere	790, 349	Total	5, 265, 768
Uncompangre	848,018	l .	-,
Total.	13, 368, 395	New Mexico: Alamo	603 770
I V (QL	10,000,000	Carson	603, 779 856, 647
Florida:		Chiricahua 1	126, 478
rioriua.			
Florida	308, 268	DatilGila.	2,670,412 1,463,708

¹For total area, see "National Forests extending into two States."

Table 193.—Area of national forest lands, June 30, 1917—Continued.

State and forest.	Net area.	State and forest.	Net area.
New Mexico—Continued.	Acres.	Utah—Continued.	Acres.
Lincoln	551.427	La Sal ¹	519.38
Manzano 1	754,772	Manti	781,80
Santa Fe.	1,354,545	Minidoka 1	72.12
Sents Fo	1,301,010	Powell	689, 92
Total	0 201 740	Sevier	
Total	8, 381, 768		729, 06
		Uinta Wasatch	988, 603
forth Dakota:		Wasaich	607, 49
Dakota	6,054	m-4-2	7 490 00
		Total	7, 430, 08
klahoma:	41 400	TTT N. do - ad - m -	
Wjchita	61,480	Washington:	APP 404
		Chelan	677, 429
regon:		Columbia	784, 408
Cascade	1,021,461	Colville	754, 890
Crater 1	793,044	Kaniksu 1	257, 859
Deschutes	1, 292, 423	Okanogan	1, 486, 325
Fremont	884, 494	Olympic	1, 534, 686
Klamath 1	4,401	Rainier	1,315,891
Malheur	1,057,682	Spogualmie	698, 043
Minam	430, 757	Washington	1, 454, 214
Ochoco	716, 584	Wenaha 1	313, 434
		Wenatchee	665, 27
Oregon	1,031,926	Wensunes	000, 270
Santiam	607,099		2 212 51
Siskiyou 1	998, 044	Total	9, 942, 54
Siuslaw	544, 178		
Umatilla	485,786	Wyoming:	
Umpqua	1,011,097	Ashley 1	5,96
Waflowa	964,601	Bighorn	1, 119, 72
Wenaha 1	425, 504	Black Hills 1	144, 750
Whitman	884, 485	Bridger	710, 570
	,	Caribou 1	6,547
Total	13, 153, 546	Havden 1	322, 17
	10, 100, 010	Medicine Bow	469, 78
orto Rico:		Palisade 1	250, 50
Luquillo	12,443	Shoshone.	1.578.04
Daquino	,12, 170	Targhee 1.	84.97
outh Dakota:	400 400	Teton	1,922,94
Black Hills1	483, 403	Washakie	852,65
Harney	548, 854	Wyoming	999, 98
Sioux 1	75, 524	m 4.3	0.000.00
Total	1 105 501	Total	8, 366, 642
10081	1, 107, 781	Total, National Forests	155, 166, 619
Itah:		I Otal, Mational Polosis	130, 100, 011
Ashlev 1	982, 493	White Mountain and Appalachian	
	265, 594		047 104
Cache 1		8.768	947, 19
Dixie1	432, 784	0	TER 110 000
Fillmore	699, 579 661, 245	Grand total	156, 113, 81
Fishlake			

¹ For total area, see "National Forests extending into two or more States."

NATIONAL FORESTS EXTENDING INTO TWO OR MORE STATES.

Dixie Arisona-Newda-Utah 733,00 Manzano Arisona-New Mexico 782,45 Crater California-Newda 549,72 Inyo California-Newda 1,342,73 Klamath California-Newda 1,248,25 Mono California-Newda 1,248,25 Siskiyou California-Newda 557,02 Hayden California-Newda 557,02 Hayden Colorndo-Wyoming 287,7 La Sal Colorndo-Utah 546,82 Cache Idaho-Wyoming 080,0 Kaniksu Idaho-Wyoming 080,0 Kaniksu Idaho-Wyoming 581,82 Palisade Idaho-Wyoming 581,82 Targhee Idaho-Wyoming 779,32 Sioux Mestams-South Dakota 177,2	Forest.	States.	Net area.
	Dixie Manzano	Arisona-Nevada-Utah Arisona-New Mexico California-Nevada California-Nevada California-Nevada California-Oregon California-Oregon California-Nevada California-Nevada California-Nevada Colorado-Wyoming Colorado-Wyoming Colorado-Utah Idaho-Utah Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Utah Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Utah Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Washington Idaho-Utah Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Montama-South Dakota	474, 635 733, (0)7 782, 480 840, (2)1 549, 792 1, 342, 797 1, 248, 935 1, 347, 113 567, 773 546, 825 777, 211 608, (95 608, (95 608, (95 608, (95) 779, 322 173, 327 779, 327 173, 327 779, 327

TABLE 194.—Grazing allowances for national forests, 1917.

	Number	of stock au	thorized.	,	Yearlong rates (cents).			
Forest.	Cattle and horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goats.	Cattle.	Horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goat	
District 1:								
Absaroka	+ 6,950		- 95,800	68	85	51	17	
Beartooth	+ 5,000	300	+ 50,000					
Beaverhead	24,500		+ 115,500 + 42,000		· · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
Blackfeet	- 3,500 3,000		10,000	60	75	45	15	
Cabinet	- 2,000 - 2,400		10,000 + 25,000	68	85	51	17	
Clearwater	+ 2,400		- 25,000	60	75	45	l îš	
Coeur d'Alene	500		25,000	68	85	51	17	
Custer	- 18,800		+ 8,500					
Dearlodge	+ 15,700		+ 61.600					
Flathead	+ 3,650		5,000 + 60,500	60	75	45	15	
Gallatin	8,500		+ 60,500	68	85	51	17	
Helena	— 17,750		- 76,000	• • • • • • • • • •				
Jefferson	+ 20,500		+ 131,750				•••••	
Kaniksu Kootenai	1,000 + 2,300		- 11,500 - 19,000	60	75	4.5	15	
Lewis and Clark	+ 8,700		- 19,000 - 31,000	68	85	51	17	
Lolo.	- 500		+ 35,000	00	80	01		
Madison 1	+ 28,600		133,100	75	94	56. 2 5	18.	
Missoula	+ 9,100		+ 22,000	68	85	51	17	
Nez Perce	1 + 15.300		+ 22,000 + 60,500				l	
Pend Oreille	+ 1,500	!	- 31,500	60	75	45	15	
Selway	5,250		. 10,000					
Sioux	6,500	¦	2,800 - 41,650	68	85	51	17	
St. Joe	- 400			60	75	45	15	
	+211,300	300	-1,129,700				·	
Pistrict 2:		1						
Arapaho	-12,150 + 44,700		- 18,000	68	85	51	17	
Battlement 1	+ 44,700			<u>.</u>				
Bighorn	+ 39,100		- 102,300	75	94	56. 25	18.	
Black Hills	+ 21,100	2,500		68	85	51	17	
Bridger 1	+ 18,450 - 17,700		+ 63,800		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			
Colorado	+ 9,500		- 59,500		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		•••••	
Durango	+ 12,100		+ 95,900			l		
Gumnison.	- 30,800		10,000					
Herney	+ 10,500 7,400							
Hayden	7,400		120,000					
Holy Cross	11,000		31,000					
Leedville	- 11,400		+ 82,000				`	
Medicine Bow	+ 10,100	1	- 57,000		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		,	
Michigan Minnesota	- 750 2,000	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	- 200	'			٠	
Montesuma.	+ 34,900		+ 50,000					
Nebraska 1	13,000	1	_ 30,000	90	113	67.5	22	
Pike	+ 17,800		+ 20.500	68	85	51	17	
Rio Grande	+23,000		+ 20.500 - 257,000	1				
Boutt	- 26 ,300		+ 105,000				·	
San Isabel	+ 15,000	ļ	+ 15,700					
San Juan	-12,275 + 13,700	1	+ 98,000			٠	·	
Shoshone ¹	+ 13,700	<u>'</u>	+ 72,450			· · · · · · · · · · · ·		
Sepris Uncompahgre	- 12,800 + 28,850		- 43,000 + 59,700					
Washakie 1	- 12,100		+ 43,200		• • • • • •		• • • • • • • •	
White River	- 37,500		+ 35,000					
		0.500		-				
	+505,975	2,500	+1,439,250					
ristrict 3:	1 15 500	. 000	0.000			4.	!	
Alamo	+ 15,500	+ 200	- 9,000	60	75	45	15	
Apache	T 40,500	+ 100 + 100	62,000 - 157,500		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		•••••	
Chiricahua	+ 40,500 + 8,300 12,000	+ 100 - 200	2 000				, • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Coconino 1	+ 45,000	250	2,000 90,000					
Coronado	+ 26,700		4,000					
Crook	+ 19,500	100	1.350					
Datil	+48,500	- 225	1,350 + 144,000	1				
Gila	+ 59,000	+ 400	12,500					
Lincoln	+ 10,000 9,300	500	- 13,000 - 70,300					

¹ Term applications previously approved effective till expiration of period.

Table 194.—Grazing allowances for national forests, 1917—Continued.

	Number	of stock au	thorized.	,	Yearlong r	ates (cents).
Forest.	Cattle and horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goats.	Cattle.	Horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goats
District 3:—Continued.							
Prescott	+ 56,350	50	+ 71,500		·	i 	!
Santa Fe	+ 18,000	- 500	+ 71,500 + 103,500 - 74,500			` -	
Sitgreaves	- 9,600		- 74,500 100		;	. 	<u>'</u>
Tonto Tusayan	-64,700 + 22,300	50	- 70,700				`
•	+465, 250	-2,675	885,950		-		
District 4:							-
Ashley	+ 10,300 + 4,500	I 	- 96,000 + 148,000	75	94	56. 25	18.7
Boise1	+ 4,500	100	+ 148,000	68	85	51	17
CacheCaribou	+ 33,100		- 136,000				
Challis	+ 16,300 + 8,900		288,000 + 92,000 1,000				
Dixie	- 8,800	400	1,000	60	75	45	15
Fillmore	+ 20,400	500	I 30C 650	75	94	56. 25	18.7
Fishlake	- 18,400		— 69,000				····· <u>:</u>
HumboldtIdaho!	28,600	¦	+ 297,000	68	85	51	17
Kaibab	+ 2,650 + 10,700		5,000	60	75	45	15
La Sal	+ 28,100	100	+ 39,000	68	85	51	17
Lemhi	+ 28,100 + 16,200 + 27,400		+ 39,000 + 78,000	68	85	51	17
Manti	+ 27,400		+ 77,000	75	94	56. 25	18.1
Minidoka	+ 25,700		+ 77,000	68	85	51	17
Nevada Palisade	- 5,500 + 9,900		- 52,000 - 93,000		` <i></i>	·	
Payette 1	7,550		I 88 000				; · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Payette 1 Powell	- 13, 200		+ 74,000		'	·	
Ruby	+ 16,500 14,700		+ 36.000			'	
Salmon	14,700		+ 125,000		'. .	,	
Santa Rosa Sawtooth 1	14,500 + 9,500		- 43,000 - 302,000			}	
Sevier	+ 11,500	100	- 113 000				1
Targhee 1	+ 11,500 + 14,700		- 113,000 + 134,000		'	' 	
Teton	+ 17,200 + 22,500		20,000 - 21,000 - 198,400 61,100				
Toiyabe. Uinta ¹	+ 22,500		- 21,000	75			
Wasatch	+ 33,500 + 13,000		- 198, 400	15	94	56. 25	18.
Weiser	+ 12,600	600	- 68,000	68	85	51	17
W yoming	+ 11,500		- 68,000 + 197,000				
	+488, 200	+1,800	+3,248,550			ļ	
District 5: Angeles 1	4 100			75	04	56. 25	10
California.	4,100 + 7,900	1,000	- 51.300	13	94	30. 23	18.1
Cleveland	+ 7,900 2,000 + 10,500		- 51,300 - 1,300 + 20,500 + 39,200				
Eldorado	+ 10,500	50	+ 20,500	90	113	67.5	22.
Inyo	+ 6,200		+ 39,200				17.
Lassen	+ 10,250	+ 700 - 300	3,000	70 80	88 100	52. 5 60	20
Modoc	- 12,600 + 42,800 + 4,700	_ 300	5,600 - 31,200 + 65,000	75	94	56. 25	18.
Mono	+ 4,700		14 70 (M)	90	113	67.5	22.
Monterey	1.300	- 400	2,000 + 78,500 + 4,000	80	100	60	20
Plumas.	+ 13,300 + 9,100	*******	+ 78,500	85 80	106	63. 75 60	21. 20
Santa Barbara ¹ Sequoia ¹	-30,300	300 2,300	+ 4,000	90	100 113	67.5	22.
Shasta.	+ 10,500	- 360	- 8,750 24,700	75	94	56. 25	18.
Sierra 1	+ 16,000	500	24,700 + 26,000 - 9,800	90	113	67.5	22.
Stanislaus	+ 19.000	- 250	- 9,800		·		
Tahoe	+ 8,100 + 13,050	- 50 415	59,500	70	88	52. 5	17.
Trinity			+ 24,100	10		<u> </u>	1
	+221,700	-6,625	+ 521,450				
District 6: Cascade	1	ł	05 700	80	100	60	-
	+ 700 + 700	!	- 25,700 - 15,000	80 75	100 94	56.25	20 18.
	, -		10,000	80	100	60.20	20
Chelan	1.600		- JA. AIRI				
Chelan Columbia Colville	+ 1,600 6,000		60,000	75	94	56. 25	
Chelan Columbia Colville Crater	+ 1,600 6,000 + 13,700	:	- 18,500 60,000 + 13,300	75			. îs.
Chelan	+ 1,600 6,000 + 13,700 + 6,800		'⊥ 13 3\M	75			
Chelan Columbia Colville Crater	+ 1,600 6,000 + 13,700	50	+ 13,300 + 13,300 - 40,200 - 95,000 - 120,200	75			

¹Term applications previously approved effective until expiration of period.

Table 194.—Grazing allowances for national forests, 1917—Continued.

	Number	of stock au	thorized.	Yearlong rates (cents).			
Forest.	Cattle and horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goats.	Cattle.	Horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goats.
District 6—Continued.							
Ochoco	+ 14,700		- 82,000				
Okanogan	+ 13,300		90,000				
Olympic	2,500	¦				:	
Oregon	- 3,300		- 26,400	80	100	60	20
Rainier	+ 6,900		+ 52,000 + 20,000			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Siskiyou	4, 100	1,000	4,200	70	88	52.5	17.5
Siuslaw	- 1,400		+ 7,000				
Snoqualmie	·		6,000	80	100		20
Umatilla	- 10,000	'	59,400	75	94	56. 25	18.75
Umpqua	+ 1,400	;	- 10,000	80	100 94	60 56, 25	20
	+ 21,000 250		- 80,000 5,000	75 80	100	50. 25 60	18.75 20
Washington Wenaha	+ 12,100		- 100,600	75	94	56. 25	18. 75
Wenatchee	+ 950		- 57,000	80	100	60.20	20
Whitman	+ 10,800		- 105, 700	75	94	56. 25	18. 75
	+ 186, 140	- 1,050	-1, 162, 600				
D1 . 1 . m							
District 7:	15,000	22,000	2,000	80	75	45	15
Florida	6,000	3,000	7,000	00	13	30	, 10
Ozark	8,500	12,800	1,400				
Wichita	4,630			125	156	93.75	31. 25
	34, 130	37,800	10, 400				
l'urchase areas:							
('herokee	500	400	200	150	200	90	45
Georgia	860	430	500	100	140	64	32
Massanutten	+ 330		100	150	200	90	45
Monongahela		40	100			· · · · · · · · · · · ·	' -
Mount Mitchell Nantahala	600 - 400	100 200	50 150			· · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Natural Bridge	400	200	130			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Pisgah	300						
Potomac	+ 250		500				
Savannah	310	360	250				
Shenandoah	+ 2,200	100	150			' .	
Unaka	500	150	75				
White Mountain White Top	+ 300	150	150				
	7,450	- 1,930	2, 255	<u> </u>	'		
		<u> </u>		<u> </u>		##	
Totals, 1913	1,852,999	59, 535	8,521,308	(,		 -	·
Totals, 1914	1,891,119 1,983,775	65, 645	8,867,906			·	
Totals, 1915 Totals, 1916	2,008,675	64,040 58,990	8, 747, 025 8, 597, 689		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		,
Totals, 1917	2, 120, 145	54,680	8, 400, 155				
Increase or decrease in		0.,000	0, 200, 200				

Note.—The symbols (+) or (-) indicate, respectively, that there was an increase or decrease in 1917 compared with 1916. The figures themselves refer to actual numbers of stock authorized in 1917.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS,1

Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917.

[Compiled from reports of the foreign commerce and navigation of the United States, U. S. Department of Commerce.]

	Year ending June 30—								
Article imported.	1915		19	16	1917 (prel	iminary).			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.			
ANIMAL MATTER.					•				
Animals, live: Cattle—				İ					
For breeding purposes,number	538, 167	\$ 17, 513, 175	439,185	\$ 15,187,593	374,826	\$13,021,259			
Total cattledo	538, 167	17,513,175	439, 185	15, 187, 593	374,826	13,021,259			
Horses— For breeding purposes,number Otherdo	1,849 10,803	\$473,138 504,242	1,536 14,020	\$659,022 959,223	2,684 9,900	\$1,056,033 832,270			
Total horsesdo	12,652	977, 380	15,556	1,618,245	12,584	1,888,303			
Sheep— For breeding purposes,number	153,317	533,967	235,659	917, 502	160, 422	856,645			
Total sheepdo	153,317	533, 967	235, 659	917, 502	160, 422	856, 645			
Swinedodo	(2)	(2) 3,254,559	4,626	42,615 883,124	5,669	113, 457 723, 195			
Total live animals		22, 279, 081		18,649,079		16,602,859			
Beeswaxpounds	1, 564, 506	439, 541	2,146,380	594, 209	2,685,982	894,318			
Dairy products: Butter do. Cheese do Cream gallons Milk	3,828,227 50,138,520 2,077,384	977, 262 9, 370, 048 1, 800, 180 2, 556, 787	712, 998 30, 087, 999 1, 193, 745	212,370 7,058,420 1,042,775 1,515,354	523,573 14,481,514 743,819	192,767 • 4,465,633 666,267 1,746,446			
Total dairy products.		14.704,277		9,828,919		7,071,113			
Eggsdozens Egg yolks or frozen eggs,	3,046,631	438, 760	732, 566	110,638	1,110,322	268, 286			
Feathers and downs, erude:	8, 571, 758	798, 129	6,021,672	921,502	10,317,774	1,732,948			
OstrichOther		2,183,171 319,452		2,195,497 525,654		534, 921 944, 295			
Fibers, animal:									
Silk— Cocoonspounds Baw, or as reeled from the cocoonpounds	51, 495 26, 030, 925	35,114 80,531,785	197,073 33,070,902	142,743 119,484,223	62, 056 33, 868, 885	54, 995 156, 085, 649			
Wastedo Total silkdo	4, 970, 254 31, 052, 674	2, 563, 658 83, 130, 557	8,657,322 41,925,297	4,706,689 124,333,655	6, 420, 482 40, 351, 423	4, 431, 164 160, 571, 808			

Forest products come within the scope of the Department of Agriculture and are therefore included in alphr'edical order in these tables.
 Included in "All other, including fowls."

Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	J W 160	5 50, 1317-	-Continue	u.					
	Year ending June 30—								
Article imported.	1915		19	16	1917 (preliminary).				
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.			
ANIMAL MATTER—contd.									
Fibers, animal—Contd. Wool, and hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, and like animals— Class 1, clothing, pounds	222 017 420	857 008 500	402 121 585	\$112 145 857	270 481 501	\$101 502 Q41			
Class 2, combing .do Class 3, carpetdo	222, 017, 420 15, 054, 694 65, 709, 752	\$52,008,509 3,735,158 10,865,475	403, 121, 585 13, 292, 160 109, 268, 999	\$112,145,657 3, 916, 708 23, 955, 236	279, 481, 501 17, 055, 953 67, 672, 671	\$101,502,941 6,723,737 19,814,386			
Hair of the Angora goat, alpaca, etcpounds	5,301,563	1,633,426	9, 145, 278	2, 403, 133	8, 162, 093	3,096,106			
Total wooldo	308, 083, 429	68, 242, 568	534, 828, 022	142, 420, 734	372, 372, 218	131, 137, 170			
Total animal fibers,pounds	339, 136, 103	151, 373, 125	576, 753, 319	266, 754, 389	412, 723, 641	291, 708, 978			
GelatinpoundsGluedoHoneygallons	2, 714, 229 8, 705, 147 303, 965	816, 521 824, 136 124, 843	1,600,235 3,008,485 221,224	501, 509 217, 033 97, 461	1, 114, 667 6, 265, 597 427, 650	359,076 928,000 289,317			
Packing-house products: Blood, dried Bones, cleaned Bones, hoofs, and horns		227, 198 69 911, 473		196, 600 867, 242		389, 455 987, 544			
Bristles— Crude, unsorted, pounds.	45, 466	3,336	86,374	14,990	129,460	52,536			
Sorted, bunched, or preparedpounds	4,016,594	3,609,748	3,850,087	8, 612, 052	4, 028, 539	4, 381, 411			
Total bristlesdo	4,062,060	3, 613, 084	3, 936, 461	3,627,042	4, 155, 999	4, 433, 947			
Grease		1, 146, 721		930, 635		861,973			
Horsepounds Otheranimaldo Hide cuttings and other	3, 541, 903 8, 148, 570	1,500,666 744,187	6, 198, 938 9, 692, 037	2,071,429 988,342	6,337,754 6,771,033	2, 224, 576 818, 298			
grae stockpounds	(1)	1,510,608	(1)	972, 106	33, 639, 707	1, 452, 273			
Hides and skins, other than furs— Buffalo hides, dry,									
Calfskins—	12, 422, 803	2, 325, 243	13,003,888	2,463,270	27,095,228	6, 125, 219			
Drydo Green or pickled, pounds	15, 678, 046 30, 288, 655	4, 166, 617 6, 552, 157	26, 913, 217 37, 222, 276	7,835,605 9,071,349	33, 936, 381 12, 399, 814	11,062,856 4,530,193			
Drydo	93, 001, 127	21, 424, 552	153, 339, 079	37, 453, 897	161, 236, 620	48, 714, 500			
Green or pickled, poundspounds	241, 340, 290	39, 753, 213	280, 838, 692	50, 596, 221	225, 363, 408	51, 236, 153			
Drydo Green or pickled,	50, 713, 062	13, 925, 565	85, 505, 514	25, 198, 246	92, 425, 345	51,777.399			
Horse and ass skins—	15, 834, 101	2, 263, 984	15, 151, 507	2, 207, 65 8	13, 214, 962	3, 642, 410			
Drypounds Green or pickled.	5, 425, 173	1, 253, 001	6, 779, 725	1, 236, 440	12, 185, 138	3, 731, 858			
Kangaroodo Sheepskins—2	3, 800, 451 769, 125	399, 682 427, 127	11, 346, 910 1, 219, 129	1,079,284 722,300	15, 485, 233 968, 629	2, 459, 969 721, 754			
Drydo Green or pickled,	20,886,018	3, 963, 438	54, 599, 884	11, 330, 341	55, 283, 868	17, 954, 483			
Otherdo	37, 833, 520 10, 225, 362	6,021,432 1,701,095	46, 859, 397 10, 890, 642	7, 509, 009 2, 157, 756	40, 446, 730 10, 176, 141	11,626,832 2,779,9×3			

¹ Not stated.

² Except sheepskins with the wool on.

Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—							
Article imported.	19:	1915		16	1917 (preli	minary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
ANIMAL MATTER—contd.								
Packing-house products— Continued. Meat— Cured— Bacon and hams,								
Meat prepared or	7, 542, 446	\$1, 161, 090	667, 667	\$111,486	190, 293	\$46,394		
preserved Sausage, bologna,		1, 193, 268		325, 381		981, 212		
Fresh —	209, 484	53,660	47, 287	12, 322	682	274		
Beef and veal, pounds	184, 490, 759	16, 942, 661	71, 101, 756	7, 107, 949	15, 217, 118	1, 613, 090		
Mutton and lamb, pounds Porkdo	15, 528, 855	1, 474, 422	20, 257, 999	1,784,310	4, 684, 131 1, 661, 227	555, 646		
Other, including meat extracts	16, 250, 514	2,011,065 2,561,906	2, 169, 084	234, 873	1,001,221	280, 795 3, 773, 082		
Total meat		25, 398, 072		11,062,716		7, 250, 493		
Oleo stearinpounds	2, 421, 009	209, 515	910, 478	81 280	1, 113, 277	114,640		
Rennets		101, 017 2, 941, 501		86, 706 3, 865, 877		13, 154 4, 219, 235		
Total packing-house products		142, 494, 247		183, 611, 351		239, 129, 197		
Total animal matter		336, 785, 283		484,007,241		560, 463, 308		
VEGETABLE MATTER.								
Argols, or wine lees, pounds Breadstuffs. (See Grain and grain products.)	28, 624, 551	3,094,380	34, 721, 043	5,306,246	23,925,808	3,824,882		
Broom cornlong tons	129	15,912	158	24,643	30	4,743		
Cocoa and chocolate: Cocoa— Crude, leaves and shells ofpounds	192, 306, 634	22, 893, 241	243, 231, 939	35, 143, 865	338, 653, 876	39, 834, 279		
Chocolatedo	2, 427, 561	584,915	243, 231, 939 2, 347, 102	35, 143, 865 660, 377	1, 829, 521	553, 139		
Total cocoa and choclatepounds	194, 734, 195	23, 478, 156	245, 579, 101	35, 801, 242	340, 483, 397	40, 387, 418		
Coffeedo	1,118,690,524	106, 765, 644	1,201,104,485	115, 485, 970	1,319,870,802	133, 184, 000		
Coffee substitutes: Chicory root— Roasted, ground, or otherwise prepared,								
pounds	755, 680	17, 389	448	48	853, 271	37,383		
Total coffee substi- tutespounds	755, 680	17, 389	448	48	353, 271	37,383		
Fibers, vegetable: Cottonpounds. Flaxlong tons Hempdo Istle, or Tampico fiber,	185, 204, 579 4, 694 5, 310	23, 208, 960 1, 875, 701 1, 156, 129	232,801,062 6,939 6,506	40, 150, 342 3, 508, 295 1, 642, 418	147, 061, 635 7, 918 9, 635	40, 429, 526 4, 236, 232 2, 487, 477		
Jute and jute butts.do Kapocdo Manilado. New Zealand flax.do. Sisal grassdo.	12, 300 83, 140 3, 860 51, 081 2, 944 185, 764 6, 697	1,216,466 4,677,334 767,509 9,200,793 319,936 20,572,347 633,802	30, 812 108, 322 5, 642 78, 892 7, 180 228, 610 9, 313	2,905,494 7,914,782 1,139,648 14,066,838 1,130,995 25,803,433 1,348,159	32,680 112,695 6,861 76,765 7,910 143,407 10,747	2,913,414 9,855,196 1,671,245 17,274,455 1,718,740 25,931,525 1,621,474		
Otherdo			9,313		10,747			
Total vegetable fibers.		63, 628, 977	<u> </u>	99, 610, 404		108, 139, 284		

Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—							
Article imported.	1915		191	16	1917 (preliminary).			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.								
Forest products: Cinchona barkpounds Cork wood or cork bark	8,944,549	\$561,106 2,762,895	3,947,320	\$777, 637 3, 134, 884	2,531,397	\$685,936 3,870,389		
Dyewoods, and extracts of— Dyewoods—								
Logwoodlong tons. Otherdo	55,059 13,361	742, 234 197, 122	134, 629 24, 592	3,437,698 468,669	122, 794 8, 895	4, 137, 400 189, 176		
Total dyewoods.do	68, 420	939, 356	159, 221	3,906,367	. 131,689	4,326,576		
Extracts and decoctions ofpounds	6, 191, 232	202,675	5,471,251	382,880	2,500,854	152,619		
Total dyewoods, and extracts of		1,142,031		4, 289, 247		4, 479, 195		
Gums— Camphor— Crudepounds Refineddo	3,729,207 1,170,666	1,003,261 417,861	4, 574, 430 1 866, 154	1,236,172 619,320	6, 884, 950 4, 263, 815 7, 440, 022	2, 101, 239 1, 972, 351		
Chicledo Copal, kauri, and damar pounds	6, 499, 664 27, 450, 545	2,459,810 2,821,346	7, 346, 969 44, 528, 856	2,829,184 3,587,020	41,443,780	3, 538, 353 3, 402, 403		
Gambier, or terra ja- ponica,pounds	14, 169, 490	542,200	12,819,859	928, 924	10, 133, 625	859, 873		
India rubber, gutta percha, etc— Balatapounds Guayule gumdo Gutta-joolatong, or East Indian gum,	2,472,224 5,111,849	963,384 1,441,367	2,544,405 2,816,068	996, 102 880, 813	3,287,445 2,854,372	1, 649, 452 764, 484		
pounds	14,851,264 1,618,214 172,068,428	731, 995 230, 750 83, 030, 269	27, 858, 335 3, 188, 449 267, 775, 557	1,322,262 342,226 155,044,790	23, 376, 389 2, 021, 794 333, 373, 711	1,044,022 332,223 189,328,674		
Total india rubber, etcpounds	196, 121, 979	86, 397, 765	304, 182, 814	158, 586, 193	364, 913, 711	193, 118, 855		
Shellacdo	24, 153, 363	3,016 472 1,581,704	25 817, 509	3,302,825 2,324,092	32, 539, 522	7,623,647 2,012,417		
Total gums		98, 240, 419		173, 413, 730		214, 629, 138		
Ivory, vegetable, pounds Naval stores:	21,059,746	510, 677	32,942,115	840, 464	51, 699, 719	1,427,750		
Turpentine, spirits of, gallons	13, 750	5, 102	19, 035	8, 189	18, 661	8, 691		
Tanning materials: Mangrove bark, long tons Quebracho, extract of	8, 096	218, 952	21, 186	582, 922	10, 565	299, 897		
Quebracho wood,	120, 450, 283	3, 676, 749	81,501,952	5, 432, 468	59, 808, 734	5, 198, 904		
Sumac ground, pounds	54, 955 13, 165, 182	753, 981 323, 448 370, 133	106, 864 21, 542, 390	1, 598, 465 555, 276 668, 166	73, 367 1, 637, 023	1, 274, 660 365, 173 792, 064		
Other		5, 343, 263		8, 837, 297		7, 930, 698		
Wood, not elsewhere spec- ified— Brier root or brierwood and ivy or laurel root. Chair cane or reed		334, 552 169, 181		457, 537 265, 305		589, 607 235, 400		

Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—								
Article imported.	191	5	191	16	1917 (preli	minary).			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.			
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.									
Forest products—Con. Wood, not elsewhere specified—Con. Cabinet woods, unsawed—					_ 10 FM				
Cedar M feet Mahogany do Other	15, 875 42, 325	\$947, 313 2, 640, 705 683, 757	14, 369 39, 855	\$740, 488 2, 781, 372 489, 247	12, 582 42, 780	\$693, 673 2, 888, 618 684, 562			
Total cabinet woods,		4, 271, 775		4, 011, 107		4, 266, 850			
Logs and round timber,	131, 544	1, 263, 641	150, 401	1, 417, 859	134, 841	1, 270, 34			
Lumber— Boards, deals, planks, and other sawed lumber	940, 687 672, 023 1, 487, 116	17, 865, 582 1, 916, 214 3, 104, 698 621, 097	1, 218, 416 771, 823 1, 769, 333	23, 131, 327 2, 207, 223 3, 593, 696 709, 696	1, 175, 180 766, 286 1, 924, 139	24, 509, 908 2, 280, 656 4, 568, 340 730, 158			
Total lumber		23, 507, 591		29, 641, 942		32, 089, 062			
Pulp wood— Peeled cords. Rossed do Rough Rough do Ado Rattan and reeds. All other	551, 239 187, 047 247, 400	3, 516, 460 1, 597, 750 1, 458, 629 771, 628 511, 682	627, 290 164, 714 187, 006	3, 959, 732 1, 282, 658 1, 131, 359 1, 720, 816 793, 692	639, 816 162, 818 214, 180	4, 285, 28 1, 295, 95 1, 307, 88 1, 171, 05 689, 23			
Total wood, n.e.s		37, 402, 889		44, 682, 007		47,200,67			
Wood pulp— Chemical— Blesched.long tons Unbleached.do Mechanicaldo	100, 555 300, 114 187, 253	5, 256, 724 11, 483, 268 3, 141, 119	55, 760 264, 882 186, 406	3,025,941 10,693,736 3,148,173	47, 767 381, 601 270, 107	4, 723, 37 30, 720, 21 7, 018, 40			
Total wood pulp, long tons	587,922	19, 881, 111	507,048	16, 867, 850	699, 475	42,461,99			
Total forest prod- ucts		165, 849, 493		252, 851, 305		322, 694, 49			
Fruits: Fresh or dried— Bananas bunches Currants pounds Dates do Grapes cubic feet Lemons pounds Olives gallons Oranges pounds Pineapples Raisins pounds Other	2, 808, 806	13, 512, 960 1, 209, 273 420, 203 1, 024, 495 1, 523, 547 3, 730, 075 1, 607, 903 50, 022 1, 309, 750 238, 958 1, 431, 242	36, 754, 704 25, 373, 029 31, 075, 424 7, 153, 250 623, 856 5, 938, 446	12, 106, 158 1, 382, 839 547, 433 315, 831 703, 274 2, 062, 030 2, 433, 304 89, 464 964, 623 143, 750 1, 582, 600	34, 661, 179 10, 476, 534 25, 485, 361 16, 479, 733 1, 402, 446 5, 641, 759	12, 724, 19 1, 056, 52 622, 93 704, 16 1, 656, 60 2, 163, 58 2, 338, 61 160, 71 935, 90 234, 56 1, 936, 56			
Total fresh or dried		26, 058, 428		22, 331, 306		24, 534 36			
Prepared or preserved		1,022,971		954, 523		781, 57			
Total fruits		27,081,399		23, 285, 829		25, 315, 94			
Grain and grain products: Grain— Cornbushels. Oatsdo Wheatdo	9,897,939 630,722 426,469	6, 083, 385 290, 180 469, 847	5, 208, 497 665, 314 5, 703, 078	2, 865, 003 302, 547 5, 789, 321	2, 267, 299 761, 644 24, 138, 817	1, 488, 52 473, 47 41, 900, 49			
Total grain do	10, 955, 130	6, 843, 412	11,576,889	8, 956, 871	27, 167, 760	43, 862, 50			

Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	<i> </i>			••					
	Year ending June 30—								
Article imported.	191	15	191	16	1917 (preli	minary).			
•	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.			
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.									
Grain and grain products— con. Grain products—									
Bread and biscuit Macaroni, vermicelli,		\$266,079		\$213,400		\$148, 401			
etcpounds Meal and flour—	56, 542, 480	8,061,337	21,789,602	1, 525, 695	3, 472, 503	262, 909			
Wheat flour, barrels Other	64,200	309, 742 2, 037, 786	329,905	1,689,418 3,251,976	174, 704	1, 458, 279 3, 664, 279			
Total grain prod- ucts		5, 674, 944		6, 680, 489		5, 533, 868			
Total grain and grain products		12, 518, 356		15, 637, 360		49, 396, 371			
Haylong tons	20, 187	228, 906	43, 184	679, 412	58, 147	628, 021			
HonspoundsIndigodododo	11,651,332 7,975,709 65,958,501	2,778,735 1,596,978 1,252,989	675, 704 6, 599, 583 41, 003, 295	144,627 8,235,670 1,609,571	236, 849 1, 776, 105 59, 400, 224	59, 291 3, 419, 873 2, 190, 822			
Liquors, alcoholic: Distilled spirits—									
Brandy proof galls Cordials, liqueurs, etc.,	400, 203	1,035,562	536, 342	1, 576, 481	420, 567	1,502,845			
proof galis	408, 090 742, 439	858, 599 717, 131	330, 452 805, 749	794, 553 749, 775	357, 311 263, 520	902, 696 439, 244			
Ginproof galls Whiskydo Otherdo	742, 439 1, 327, 759 411, 236	717, 131 2, 641, 617 317, 413	330, 452 805, 749 1,742, 197 538, 759	749, 775 3, 677, 662 433, 098	263, 520 1, 676, 151 397, 934	439, 244 4, 404, 496 543, 620			
Total distilled spirits, proof galls	3, 289, 727	5, 570, 322	3, 953, 499	7, 231, 569	3, 115, 483	7, 792, 891			
Malt liquors— Bottledgallons Unbottleddo	799, 946 2, 551, 158	768, 893 818, 505	872, 402 1, 740, 333	850, 913 605, 980	632, 064 1, 608, 113	717, 653 682, 843			
Total malt liquors, gallons	3, 351, 104	1, 587, 398	2,612,735	1, 456, 893	2, 240, 177	1,400,496			
Wines— Champagne and other sparklingdoz. qts	114,630	2,004,680	206, 210	3, 532, 022	195, 714	3, 442, 645			
Still wines— Bottled.doz. quarts Unbottledgallons	626, 865 3, 860, 273	2, 273, 916 1, 968, 587	546, 119 3, 455, 756	2, 197, 311 2, 267, 561	534, 402 3, 167, 400	2, 485, 014 2, 558, 086			
Total still wines		4, 242, 503		4, 464, 872		5,043,100			
Total wines		6, 247, 183		7, 996, 894		8, 485, 745			
Total alcoholic liq- uors		13, 404, 903		16, 685, 356		17, 679, 132			
high barley. (See Grain and grain products). Mait liquors. (See Liquors, alcoholic.) Nursery stock:									
Plants, trees, shrubs, and vines— Bulbs, bulbous roots or									
corms, cultivated for their flowers or foli- age	255,700	2,375,316	231,733	2, 180, 687	293, 318	2, 886, 180			
Other		1, 376, 234		1, 508, 677		1,069,520			
Total nursery stock	\ <u></u>	3,751,550		3, 689, 364		3, 955, 709			

Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—							
Article imported.	1915		191	16	1917 (preli	minary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.								
Nuts: Almonds— Sheliedpounds Unshelleddo Coconuts, unshelled Coconut meat, broken, or copra— Not shredded, desic-	12, 208, 551 4, 902, 713	\$3,100,428 499,151 1,593,517	13,667,766 2,929,155	\$3,700,298 272,815 1,876,966	18, 413, 225 5, 010, 833	\$4,621,100 548,826 2,587,535		
cated, or prepared,	90, 548, 715	3, 597, 657	110,077,844	4,551,427	247, 036, 099	12, 515, 712		
Shredded, desiccated, or prepared pounds.	5, 936, 212	432, 993	8, 535, 725	698, 357	9, 743, 024	727,424		
Cream and Brazil,	16, 172, 581	878, 272	14, 798, 912	917, 613	14,627,742	712, 433		
Filberts— Shelledpounds Unshelleddo	1,973,192 11,717,370	275, 026 949, 099	1, 133, 915 9, 785, 545	230, 854 819, 508	2,058,732 11,181,301	487,021 1,354,257		
Peanuts— Shelleddo Unshelleddo	9, 643, 691 14, 540, 982	333, 980 490, 779	19, 392, 832 9, 020, 848	722, 939 328, 099	27, 180, 748 7, 806, 012	1, 193, 364 339, 811		
Walnuts— Shelled do Unshelled do Other	11, 107, 490 22, 338, 318	2, 322, 754 1, 661, 473 895, 803	14, 228, 714 22, 630, 220	3, 157, 933 1, 899, 012 1, 996, 596	13, 058, 518 25, 666, 844	3, 713, 340 2, 497, 454 1, 566, 737		
Total nuts		16, 830, 932		21, 172, 417		32, 865, 014		
Oil cake pounds	21, 188, 658	219,635	37, 645, 777	408, 808	52,671,866	554,871		
Oils, vegetable: Fixed or expressed— Cocoa butter or butter- inepounds Coconut ollpounds Cottonseeddo Flaxsed or linseed, gallons	150, 378 63, 135, 428 15, 162, 361 535, 291	42, 185 5, 430, 581 728, 961 248, 403	400, 371 66, 007, 560 17, 180, 542 50, 148	129, 654 6, 047, 183 915, 972 33, 295	166, 172 79, 223, 394 13, 703, 126 110, 808	55, 564 9, 132, 095 1, 039, 080 76, 630		
Nut oil, or oil of nuts, n.e.s.—								
Chinese nut .gallons Peanutdo	4, 940, 330 852, 905	1,733.264 581,150	4, 968, 262 1, 475, 123	1, 977, 823 818, 283	6, 864, 116 3, 026, 188	4, 046, 132 2, 036, 592		
Olive for mechanical purposes gallons. Olive, salad do. Palm oil pounds. Palm kernel do. Rapeseed gallons. Sova bean pounds. Other	653, 064 6, 710, 967 31, 485, 661 4, 905, 852 1, 498, 612 19, 206, 521	450, 001 8, 225, 485 2, 025, 060 446, 763 786, 485 899, 819 212, 116	884, 944 7, 224, 431 40, 496, 731 6, 760, 928 2, 561, 244 98, 119, 695	684, 896 9, 746, 672 2, 885, 595 512, 666 1, 426, 659 5, 128, 200 516, 500	651, 018 7, 533, 149 36, 074, 059 1, 857, 038 1, 084, 905 162, 690, 235	615, 350 10, 502, 671 3, 316, 417 197, 237 645, 090 11, 410, 606 474, 390		
Total fixed or expressed		21, 810, 273		30. 823. 398		43, 547, 754		
Volatile or essential— Birch and cajeput Lemonpounds Other	577, 595	(1) 600, 642 2, 370, 364	543, 857	22, 175 441, 910 2, 645, 571	449, 735	33, 302 373, 933 3, 038, 177		
Total volatile or es- sential?		2, 971, 006		3, 109, 656		3. 445. 412.		
Total vegetable oils		24.781,279			' 	46, 993, 166		
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Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—							
Article imported.	191	15	19	16	1917 (preli	minary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.				-				
Rice, rice meal, etc.:					•			
Cleaned pounds Uncleaned, including	112, 118, 326	\$2,655,739	121, 028, 908	\$2,867,453	97, 453, 086	\$2,735,702		
paddypounds Rice flour, rice meal, and broken rice,	90, 241, 834	2,340,968	87,671,332	2, 215, 273	80, 865, 798	2, 290, 173		
pounds	74, 831, 312	1,307,509	55, 628, 767	1, 010, 885	37, 730, 024	747,922		
Total rice, etc., pounds	277, 191, 472	6, 304, 216	264, 324, 005	6,093,611	216, 048, 858	5, 773. 797		
Sago, tapioca, etc		1, 434, 219		2, 226, 697		3,712,956		
Seeds: Castor beans or seeds, bushels	924, 604	993, 577	1,071,963	1, 555, 899	766, 857	1, 184, 985		
Redpounds Otherdo Flaxseed or linseed,	8, 749. 757 15, 406, 954	1, 072, 468 1, 162, 810	33, 476, 401 8, 363, 360	4, 918, 171 822, 572	5, 971, 267 12, 200, 892	936, 092 1, 569, 782		
bushelsdodododododo	10, 666, 215 34, 690, 259 15, 882, 661	13,374,536 1,384,372 1,409,973 3,657,084	14, 679, 233 8, 790, 920 9, 042, 490	20, 220, 921 698, 630 1, 030, 788 4, 324, 779	12,393,988 9,187,613 14,469,774	25, 149, 669 849, 630 1, 684, 867 4, 504, 640		
Total seeds		23, 054, 820		33, 571, 760		35, 879, 665		
Spices: Unground—						_ 		
Cassia, or cassia vera, pounds	5, 786, 324	357, 071	9,707,982	623, 478	8, 744, 044	740, 846		
Ginger root, not pre- servedpounds Pepper, black or white,	3, 127, 722	150, 515	7, 322, 399	540, 007	2, 590, 279	243, 962		
poundspounds	30, 267, 384 6, 438	3, 086, 782 387	37, 389, 324	4, 505, 380	23, 961, 966	3. 636, 049		
Total unground, pounds	39, 187, 868	3, 594, 755	54, 419, 705	5, 668, 865	35,296,289	4, 620, 857		
Groundpounds	20, 902, 214	2, 332, 604	28, 098, 084	3, 279, 864	23, 220, 288	3, 123, 286		
Total spicesdo	60, 090, 082	5, 927, 359	82, 517, 789	8, 948, 729	58, 516, 577	7, 744, 143		
Spirits, distilled. (See Liquors, alcoholic.) Starchpounds	13, 233, 383	343, 805	2, 467, 038	123, 838	20, 647, 893	973, 530		
Sugar and molasses: Molassesgallons	70, 839, 623	1, 963, 505	85. 716, 673	3, 775, 894	110, 237, 888	10. 946, 571		
Sugar— Raw— Beetpounds	877, 623	29.386	2,050	174	28, 847	1, 443		
Canedo Maple sugar and		173, 837, 646	5,631,272,766	208, 572, 890	5,329,587,360	230, 574, 221		
siruppounds	1, 473, 762	125. 571	1, 886, 933	196,335	3, 129, 647	370, 030		
Total rawdo	5,420,981,867	173, 992, 603	5,633,161,749	208, 769, 399	5,332,745,854	230, 945, 694		
Total sugar and molasses		175, 956, 108		212, 545, 293		241, 892, 265		
Teapounds Tea, waste., etc., for manu-	96, 987, 942	17, 512, 619	109, 865, 935	20, 599, 857	103, 364, 410	19, 265, 264		
facturingpounds	4, 230, 456	137, 155	4, 794, 542	200, 115	7, 975. 343	494, 280		

Table 195.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

Year ending June 30—							
1915		1916		1917 (preliminary).			
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
				_			
·		, ,			\$5, 298, 995 20, 182, 984		
38, 508, 035	17, 693, 320	43,007,046	17,302,200	42, 194, 411	20, 102, 904		
45, 809, 213	27. 160. 570	48, 077, 956	24, 629, 195	46, 136, 347	25, 481, 979		
888, 569	1.863,515	914, 386	1.697.543	799, 893	1,662,578		
905, 647 829, 177 546, 903 270, 942 6, 195, 819 249, 645 5, 634, 809	1, 461, 917 657, 374 1, 305, 633 274, 915 1, 350, 101 5, 049, 940 885, 653 830, 916 2, 554, 223 4, 279, 792 9, 329, 732 73, 361 1, 012, 402	662, 759 815, 872 940, 321 209, 532 4, 313, 095 234, 396 9, 727, 312	1, 288, 034 749, 150 2, 888, 683 331, 814 1, 907, 879 7, 145, 560 985, 408 515, 048 2, 165, 377 3, 665, 833 10, 811, 393 76, 308 1, 580, 530	3, 747, 993 1, 757, 948 1, 163, 021 3, 079, 025 4, 384, 788 203, 504 7, 216, 103	12, 137, 048 1, 820, 396 3, 035, 082 4, 705, 812 2, 668, 321 24, 366, 629 1, 463, 164 1, 179, 959 2, 141, 137 4, 784, 260 29, 150, 886 88, 037 1, 739, 196		
			705, 697, 589		= <u></u>		
	Quantity. 7, 241, 178 38, 568, 035 45, 809, 213 888, 569 905, 647 829, 177 548, 903 270, 942 6, 195, 819 249, 645 5, 634, 809	Quantity. Value. 7, 241, 178 \$9, 267, 044 38, 568, 035 17, 893, 526 45, 809, 213 27, 160, 570 888, 569 1, 863, 515 905, 647 1, 461, 917 657, 374 546, 903 1, 305, 633 270, 942 274, 915 1, 350, 101 5, 049, 940 6, 195, 819 885, 653 809, 916 2, 554, 223 4, 279, 792 9, 329, 732 249, 645 73, 361 5, 634, 800 1, 012, 402	1915 191 Quantity. Value. Quantity. 7, 241, 178 \$9, 267, 044 5, 070, 308 38, 568, 035 17, 893, 526 43, 007, 648 45, 809, 213 27, 160, 570 48, 077, 956 888, 569 1, 863, 515 914, 386 905, 647 1, 461, 917 662, 759 829, 177 657, 374 815, 872 546, 903 1, 305, 633 940, 321 270, 942 274, 915 209, 532	1915 1916 Quantity. Value. Quantity. Value. 7, 241, 178 \$9, 267, 044 5, 070, 308 \$7, 246, 942 38, 568, 035 17, 893, 526 43, 007, 648 17, 382, 253 45, 809, 213 27, 160, 570 48, 077, 956 24, 629, 195 888, 569 1, 863, 515 914, 386 1, 697, 543 905, 647 1, 461, 917 682, 759 1, 288, 034 829, 177 637, 374 815, 872 749, 150 546, 903 1, 305, 633 940, 321 2, 868, 683 270, 942 274, 915 299, 532 331, 814 209, 532 331, 814 1, 907, 879 5, 649, 940 7, 145, 560 7, 145, 560 6, 195, 819 885, 653 4, 313, 095 985, 408 830, 916 2, 554, 223 2, 165, 377 4, 279, 792 3, 665, 833 9, 329, 732 10, 811, 393 249, 645 73, 361 234, 396 76, 308 5, 634, 809 1, 012, 402 9, 727, 312	1915 1916 1917 (preli Quantity. Value. Quantity. Value. Quantity. 7, 241, 178 \$9, 267, 044 5, 070, 308 \$7, 246, 942 3, 941, 936 38, 568, 035 17, 893, 526 43, 007, 648 17, 382, 253 42, 194, 411 45, 809, 213 27, 160, 570 48, 077, 956 24, 629, 195 46, 136, 347 888, 569 1, 863, 515 914, 396 1, 697, 543 799, 893 905, 647 1, 461, 917 662, 759 1, 288, 034 3, 747, 993 829, 177 657, 374 815, 872 749, 150 1, 757, 948 546, 903 1, 305, 633 940, 321 2, 888, 683 1, 163, 021 270, 942 274, 915 209, 532 331, 814 3, 079, 025 1, 350, 101 1, 397, 312 331, 344 3, 079, 025 6, 195, 819 885, 653 4, 313, 095 985, 408 4, 384, 788 830, 916 515, 048 2, 165, 377 2, 165, 377 2, 165, 377 4, 279, 792 3, 665, 833 <t< td=""></t<>		

Table 196.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917.

	Year ending June 30—							
Article exported.	193	15	191	16	1917 (preli	minary).		
•	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
ANIMAL MATTER.								
Animals, live: Cattlenumber Horsesdo Mulesdo Shoepdo Swinedo Others (including lowls)	5, 484 289, 340 65, 788 47, 213 7, 799	\$702,847 64,046,534 12,726,143 182,278 93,067 202,817	21,287 357,553 111,915 52,278 22,048	\$2,378,248 73,531,146 22,960,312 231,535 238,718 331,337	13,387 278,674 136,689 58,752 21,936	\$949,503 59,525,329 27,800,854 367,477 347,951 391,840		
Total live animals		77,953,686		99,671,296		89, 382, 954		
Beeswaxpounds	181,328	57,971	147,772	48, 252	383,722	131,698		
Dairy products: Butterdo Cheesedo Milk— Condenseddo	9,850,704 55,362,917 37,235,627	2,392,480 8,463,174 3,066,642	13, 487, 481 44, 394, 301 159, 577, 620	3,590,105 7,430,089 12,712,952	26, 835, 092 66, 087, 213 259, 102, 213	8, 749, 170 15, 244, 364 25, 129, 983		
Other, including cream.		343,583		524,426		283, 467		
Total dairy products, pounds		14, 265, 879		24, 257, 572		49, 406, 984		
Eggsdozens Egg yolks Feathers	20,784,424	5,003,764 88,865 281,806	26, 396, 206	6,134,441 210,255 312,113	24,946,424	7,570,411 72,491 368,862		
Fibers, animal: Silk wastepounds Wooldo	32, 285 8, 158, 300	8,403 2,216,187	76,596 4,418,915	54,017 2,264,320	21, 782 2, 148, 350	13,418 1,230,298		
Total animal fibers	8, 190, 585	2, 224, 590	4, 495, 511	2,318,337	2, 170, 132	1,243,714		
Gluepounds	2,874,225	298, 136 114, 038	4,946,228	531,329 252,487	4,048,104	515, 320 736, 139		
Packing-house products: Beef— Canned pounds. Cured or pickled.do. Freshdo. Oils—oleo oildo. Oleomargarinedo. Tallowdo.	75, 243, 261 31, 874, 743 170, 440, 934 80, 481, 946 5, 252, 183 20, 239, 988	11,973,530 3,382,670 21,731,633 9,341,188 617,035 1,386,445	50, 803, 765 38, 114, 682 231, 214, 000 102, 645, 914 5, 426, 221 16, 288, 743	9, 439, 066 4, 034, 195 28, 885, 999 12, 469, 115 640, 480 1, 326, 472	67, 576, 725 58, 693, 667 197, 181, 101 67, 113, 421 5, 651, 267 15, 256, 844	16, 966, 030 6, 728, 339 26, 277, 271 11, 067, 505 901, 659 1, 805, 743		
Total beefdo	383, 533, 055	48, 432, 501	444, 493, 325	56, 795, 327	411, 473, 025	63,746,567		
Bones, and manufactures of		34,796		67,536		103,477		
Lubricating Soap stock Hair	!	2,384,395 4,266,097 1,402,189		3,994,436 3,156,568 2,038,838		2, 811, 998 3, 405, 152 1, 451, 354		
Hides and skins, other than furs— Calfskinspounds Cattle hidesdo Horsedo Otherdo	1,074,529 21,135,730 605,054 2,117,867	248,547 4,013,172 67,798 356,207	1,574,369 13,284,190 266,743 1,966,717	469, 632 2, 938, 925 34, 481 432, 208	1,374,038 7,434,961 179,704 1,077,332	549, 459 2, 066, 357 32, 900 366, 002		
Totaldo	24,933,180	4,685,724	17,092,019	3,875,251	10,066,035	3,014,718		
Hoofs, horns, and horn tips, strips, and waste. Lard compounds, pounds. Meat, canned, n. e. s. Muttonpounds.	69,980,614 3,877,413	16,182 6,045,752 2,192,464 448,221	52, 843, 311 5, 552, 918	37,558 5,147,434 2,835,005 696,882	56, 279, 393 3, 195, 576	39, 804 8, 269, 844 4, 322, 280 481, 526		
Oils, animal, n. e. s., gallons	559, 197	405, 635	655, 587	492,964	430, 566	398, 114		
Pork— Cannedpounds	4,644,418	745,928	9,610,732	1,815,586	by 5,898,128	Z 1,645,605		

Table 196.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—						
Article exported.	1915		1916		1917 (preliminary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
ANIMAL MATTER—contd.							
Packing-house products— Continued. Pork—Continued.							
Cured— Baconpounds Hams and shoulders,	346, 718, 227	47, 326, 129	579, 808, 788	78, 615, 6 16	667, 156, 061	117, 221, 683	
pounds	203,701,114	29,049,931	282, 208, 611	40, 803, 022	266,655,581	50, 474, 041	
pounds	45, 655, 574	4,911,307	63, 460, 713	6,752,356	47,001,621	6,942,186	
Total cured, pounds	596, 014, 915	81, 287, 367	925, 478, 110	126, 170, 994	980, 813, 263	174,637,910	
Freshdo Larddo Lard, neutraldo Oils—lard oilgallons	3,908,193 475,531,908 26,021,054 184,019	52,440,133 3,022,321	34, 426, 590	7,523,408 47,634,376 4,046,397 309,836	414,787,521 17,548,259	77, 012, 830	
Total pork		138, 081, 187		187, 500, 597		265, 658, 343	
Sausage and sausage meats— Cannedpounds Otherdo Sausage casingsdo Stearindo All other	1,821,958 5,183,525 30,818,551 11,457,907	307, 726 845, 661 4, 859, 815 1, 083, 665 2, 412, 842	8, 590, 236 14, 708, 893	1, 269, 866 1, 732, 231 2, 867, 681 1, 461, 661 5, 083, 862	9,134,471 6,117,560 12,936,357	1,311,320 2,441,510 1,741,959 1,798,317 3,960,566	
Total packing-house products		217,904,852		279, 053, 697		364, 956, 849	
Poultry and game		1,187,771		1,561,398		1,327,348	
Total animal matter.		319, 381, 358		414,351,177		515, 712, 770	
VEGETABLE MATTER. Breadstuffs. (See Grain							
and grain products.) Broom cornlong tons Cocoa, ground or prepared,	3,764	368, 051	·	454,749			
and chocolate		1,934,166		1,668,657		3, 451, 518	
Coffee: Green or rawpounds Roasted or prepared,	49, 177, 146	6,841,575	35, 333, 483	5,361,065	42, 970, 581	6, 412, 486	
pounds	2, 421, 664	461,030	1,880,800	378, 268	2, 151, 226	436, 519	
Total coffeedo	51,598,810	7, 302, 605	37, 194, 283	5, 739, 323	45, 121, 807	6,849,005	
Sea Island {bales pounds	6,158 2,437,6 02	484, 465	4,247 1,731,796	483, 184	2,311 943,864	458, 728	
Upland	8, 201, 189 4,288,295,926	372,068,490	5,698,960 2,95 6,810,277	1004 700 000	5,470,150 2,850,149,189	\$18, 53 0, 999	
Linters\bales\pounds	218,950 112,844,971	3,665,017	$\left\{\begin{array}{c} 252,627\\ 125,528,052, \end{array}\right.$	8,992,685	474, 704 236, 974, 152	24, 110, 815	
Total cottondo	4,403,578,499	376, 217, 972	3,084,070,125	374, 186, 247	3,088,067,205	543, 100, 542	
Flavoring extracts and fruit juices		136,742 56,698		466, 914 86, 407		581, 573 105, 592	
Forest products: Bark, and extract of, for							
tanning— Barklong tons Bark, extracts of	825	21, 424 2, 226, 457	5, 226	123,675 5,982,799	1,850	49,907 3,908,573	
Total bark, etc		2, 247, 881		6,026,474		3,958,460	

Table 196.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—						
Article exported.	1915		1916		1917 (preliminary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.							
Forest products—Contd. Charcoal		\$105,009 36,738		\$94,098 54,720		\$155,470 82,880	
Naval stores— Rosinbarrels	1,372,316	6, 220, 321	1,571,279	8, 874, 313	1,634,430	10, 731, 977	
Tar, turpentine, and pitchbarrels	239, 661	430,612	67, 963	291,731	103,655	566, 896	
Turpentine, spirits of, gallons	9, 464, 120	4,478,306	9, 310, 268	4,337,563	8, 833, 972	4,308,443	
Total naval stores		11, 127, 239		13,503,607		15,607,311	
W_ood							
Logs— HickoryM feet Oakdo Walnutdo Otherdo	2,020 226 1,090 41,175	73, 786 10, 563 78, 338 720, 836	2,294 2,019 1,083 38,998	75, 888 53, 668 88, 255 757, 761	257 842 1,604 48,533	13, 334 27, 814 167, 356 784, 151	
. Totaldo	44,511	883, 523	44,392	975, 572	51, 236	992,646	
Lumber— Boards, deals, and planks—							
CyprusM feet Firdo Gumdo	10, 078 368, 886 24, 588 97, 397	319,065 4,251,620 715,756 4,870,864	10, 521 268, 455 32, 185 98, 990	366, 510 2, 964, 948 969, 338 4, 665, 527	8, 589 291, 137 19, 295 54, 183	284, 241 3, 771, 885 548, 622 2, 335, 786	
Pine— Whitedo Yellow—	18,398	662,786	34,267	1,140,247	25,623	957, 905	
Pitch pine, M. feet	403, 254	7, 565, 272	504,928	9, 149, 824	403, 186	8, 332, 957	
Short-leaf pine, M feet	5, 261	160, 219	2, 185	79, 147	3,042	66,02	
Otherpine, M feet Poplar . M feet Redwood . do Spruce . do Other . do	49,716 19,891 36,419 15,610 79,707	1, 123, 212 962, 248 1, 102, 532 462, 087 2, 925, 984	47, 276 23, 356 38, 739 37, 332 79, 099	1, 156, 439 1, 044, 883 1, 169, 975 1, 612, 892 3, 649, 360	64,915 7,239 23,398 57,895 86,397	1,539,600 324,600 736,640 3,154,830 5,056,340	
Totaldo	1, 129, 205	25, 121, 645	1,177,331	27, 989, 090	1,044,999	27, 109, 58	
Joists and scantling, M feet	6,007	103, 456	1,111,002	21,000,000	2,011,000	27,100,00	
Railroad ties, number	3, 874, 298 11, 291	2,036,200 30,578	4, 094, 265 20, 590	2, 439, 094 55, 604	3,936,107 26,212	2,369,83- 94,45	
Shooks— Boxnumber Otherdo	11,682,495 620,043	1,303,127 1,024,093	1 611,556	1, 908, 643 1, 125, 689	1 10,070,343	2,029,32 2,304,34	
Total shooks,number	12, 302, 538	2,327,220	1	3,034,332	1	4, 333, 67	
Staves and heading— Heading Stavesnumber	39, 297, 268	258, 670 2, 481, 592	57, 537, 610	288, 587 3, 529, 181	61, 465, 882	287, 174 3, 919, 565	
Total staves and heading		2,740,262		3, 817, 768		4, 206, 730	
Other		1, 650, 760		3, 393, 448		2, 896, 37	
Total number		34,010,121		40, 709, 336		41,010,65	

1 Not stated.

Table 196.—Agricultural exports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

		00, 1017	COMMING			
	Year ending June 30—					
Article exported.	19	1915 1916		1917 (preliminary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.					1	
Forest products—Contd. Wood—Continued. Timber—						
HewnM feet	6, 118	163, 106	9,628	252, 576	7,615	214, 267
Pitch pinedo Otherdo	159, 064 8, 607	2, 785, 379 229, 491	175, 763 15, 814	3, 473, 686 340, 345	149, 529 27, 545	3, 369, 566 628, 762
Total timber, Micet	173,789	3, 177, 976	201, 205	4,066,607	184,689	4, 212, 595
All other, including firewood		156, 234		164,532		203, 532
Total wood		38,227,854		45,916,047		46, 419, 429
Wood alcoholgallons Wood pulppounds	944, 374 18, 838, 400	438, 846 369, 969	1,472,258 135,994	857, 161 1, 703, 374	825, 394 1 26, 056	646, 939 2, 018, 974
Total forest products.		52,553,536		68, 155, 479		68, 889, 484
Fruits: Fresh or dried—						
Apples, dried pounds. Apples, fresh barrels. Apricots, dried,	42,589,169 2,351,501	3,270,658 8,087,466	16,219,174 1,466,321	1,304,224 5,518,772	10,530,474 1,739,997	803, 617 7, 978, 536
pounds	23,764,342	2,241,061	23, 939, 790	2,168,808 639,476	9,843,719	1,298,176 823 974
Lemonsboxes Orangesdo Peaches, dried,	122, 914 1, 759, 405	535, 479 372, 781 3, 851, 013	175,070 1,575,042	493,919 3,690,080	174,938 1,850,692	823,974 626,270 4,397,120
pounds Pears, fresh	14, 464, 655	834, 813 992, 497	13, 739, 342	893, 587 691, 732	8, 187, 588	603,620 1,356,259
Prunespounds Raisinsdo	43, 478, 892 24, 845, 414	3,274,197 1,718,547 2,717,449	57, 422, 827 75, 014, 753	691,732 3,975,396	59,645,141	4,934,329
Other	22,010,911	2,717,449	13,014,753	5,407,219 3,261,109	51,992,514	4,409,639 3,610,365
Total fresh or dried		27, 895, 961		28,044,322		30, 841, 905
Preserved— Canned		0.004.505		7 050 001		0 107 005
Other		6,064,765 269,180		7,050,061 978,568		6,137,695 673,560
Total preserved		6, 333, 945		8,028,629		6,811,255
Total fruits		34, 229, 906		36,072,951		37, 653, 160
Ginsengpounds Glucose and grape sugar:	103, 184	919, 931	256,082	1,597,508	198, 483	1,386,208
Glucosepounds Grape sugardo	125, 434, 878 83, 027, 630	3, 103, 561 781, 672	148, 523, 098 37, 883, 084	3,772,860 962,101	170, 025, 606 44, 997, 709	5,960,586 1,400,645
Grain and grain products:						
Barleybushels	28, 754, 522	18, 184, 079	27, 473, 160	20, 663, 533	16,381,077	19,027,032
Buckwheatdo Corndo	413,643 48,786,291	396, 987 39, 339, 064	27, 473, 160 515, 304 38, 217, 012 95, 918, 884	481,014 30,780,887	260,098 64,720,742	350,587 72,497,204
Oatsdo	413, 643 48, 786, 291 96, 809, 551 12, 544, 888 259, 642, 533	396, 987 39, 339, 084 57, 469, 964 14, 733, 409	95, 918, 884 14, 532, 437	481,014 30,780,887 47,985,790 15,374,499	260,098 64,720,742 88,944,401 13,260,043	350, 587 72, 497, 204 55, 034, 981 21, 694, 666
Ryedo Wheatdo	259, 642, 533	333, 552, 226	14,532,437 173,274,015	215, 532, 681	149, 837, 427	298, 179, 725
Total graindo	444, 951, 428	463, 675, 729	349, 930, 812	330, 818, 404	333, 403, 788	466, 784, 195
Grain products— Bran and middlings,						
long tons	11,426	329, 425	14, 613	432, 288	7,427	279, 617
•						

¹ Long tons (2,240 pounds).

Table 196.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917.—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—						
Article exported.	1915		1916		1917 (preliminary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.							
Grain and grain products— Continued. Grain products—Cont'd. Breadstuff preparations—			•				
Bread and biscuit, pounds Other	11,687,452	\$702,509 4,306,899	11,403,079	\$787,685 5,074,983	11,743,095	\$1,115,359 7,702,668	
Total breadstuff preparations		5,009,408		5,862,668		8,818,027	
Distillers' and brewers' grains and malt sproutslong tonsMaltbushels	7,590 2,153,060	177, 987 2, 301, 535	1,633 3,682,248	47,448 3,881,700	1,505 4,330,297	47,809 5,86%,7%7	
Meal and flour— Corn mealbarrels Oatmealpounds Rye flourbarrels Wheat flourdo	470,503 68,394,979 80,315 16,182,765	1,923,214 2,416,068 416,182 94,869,343	419, 979 54, 748, 747 119, 619 15, 520, 669	1,601,258 1,885,622 646,941 87,337,805	508, 113 110, 911, 469 73, 914 11, 942, 505	2,757,326 4,491,303 525,347 93,202,069	
Total meal and flour		99, 624, 807		91, 471, 626		100, 976, 045	
Mill feedlong tons All other	25, 459	787, 048 1, 045, 396	25,602	801, 654 1, 293, 091	46, 115	1,693,842 1,133,586	
Total grain products.		109, 275, 606		103, 789, 875		118, 817, 713	
Total grain and grain products		572, 951, 335		434, 608, 279		585,601,906	
Haylong tons Hopspounds	105,508 16,210,413	1,980,297 3,948,020	178,336 22,409,818	3, 267, 028 4, 386, 929	85, 529 4, 874, 876	1,685,836 775,621	
Lard compounds. (See Meat and meat products.) Liquors, alcoholic: Distilled spirits— Alcohol, including co- logne spirits, proof gallons Rumproof gallons	200, 455 1, 240, 804	108, 985 1, 588, 552	24, 433, 243 1, 586, 900	8, 784, 742 1, 887, 307	51, 944, 062 1, 371, 228	16,027,867 1,521,559	
Whisky— Bourbondo Ryedo	34, 823 86, 504	69, 497 168, 386	88, 802 124, 700	113, 963 206, 879	59, 611 139, 619	73,942 249,550	
Total whisky.do	121,387	237, 883	213, 502	322,742	199, 230	323, 492	
Otherdo	30, 152	46,599	50, 259	67, 595	515, 113	627,575	
Total distilled spirits, proof gallons	1,592,798	1,982,019	26, 283, 904	11,062,386	54,029,633	18, 500, 493	
Malt liquors— Bottleddozen quarts Unbottledgallons	696, 690 245, 494	1,010,222 71,890	674, 745 328, 229	969,071 95,556	966, 065 254, 685	1,377,098 64,932	
Total malt liquors		1,082,112		1,064,627		1,442,030	
Winesgallons	819,310	332,369	1, 133, 274	450, 598	2,250,037	933,427	
Total alcoholic liq- uors		3,396,500		12,577,611		20, 875, 950	
Malt. (See Grain and grain products.) Malt liquors. (See Liquors, alcoholic.)						1	

Table 196.—Agricultural exports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—						
Article exported.	1915		1916		1917 (preliminary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.		1					
Malt sprouts. (See Grain and grain products.) Nursery stock		\$ 170, 2 18		\$2 03,671		\$ 219,618	
Nuts: Peanutspounds Other	5,875,076	325,725 377,486	8,669,430	450, 765 441, 512	22,413,297	1,336,638 404,399	
Total nuts		703,211		892,277		1,741,037	
Oil cake and oil-cake meal: Cornpounds Cottonseed:	45,026,125	798, 206	18, 996, 490	297, 041	15, 739, 812	289, 793	
Cake do Meal do Flaxseed or linseed do Other	1,222,699,889 256,365,126 524,794,434 9,900,878	15, 432, 126 3, 474, 244 9, 048, 061 126, 414	980, 664, 572 76, 556, 997 640, 916, 196 28, 876, 367	14,749,489 1,109,478 11,935,129 410,166	804, 862, 375 285, 297, 316 536, 976, 419 21, 558, 676	15,059,920 5,286,091 10,252,355 398,681	
Totaldo	2,058,786,452	28, 879, 051	1,746,010,622	28, 561, 303	1,724,434,598	31, 286, 840	
Oils, vegetable: Fixed or expressed— Cornpounds. Cottonseeddo Linseedgallons. Other	17, 789, 635 318, 366, 525 1, 212, 133	1,302,159 21,872,948 669,089 1,198,852	8,967,826 266,512,057 714,120	770,076 22,658,610 478,231 2,230,002	8,779,760 158,985,642 1,201,746	998, 105 19, 878, 658 1, 117, 856 3, 003, 875	
Total fixed or expressed		25,034,048		26, 136, 919		24, 998, 493	
Volatile, or essential— Peppermint pounds Other	184,981	384, 593 413, 104	154,096	323,070 705,037	100,332	218,627 1,062,899	
Total volatile, or essential		797, 697		1,028,107		1,281,526	
Total vegetable oils		25,831,745		27, 165, 026		26, 280, 019	
Rice, rice meal, etc.: Ricepounds Rice bran, meal, and polishpounds	75, 448, 635 2, 031, 430	3, 158, 335 15, 541	120, 695, 213	4,942,373 10,371	180, 484, 685 750	9,501,602	
Rice hulls		5,122		857		556	
Total		3, 178, 998		4,953,601		9,502,172	
Roots, herbs, and barks, n. e. s		470,090		768,977		852, 251	
Seeds: Cotton seedpounds Flaxseed, or linseed,	6,314,439	94,237	2,475,907	37,811	1,001,369	35, 434	
bushels	4, 145	9,748	2,614	6, 501	1,920	3,684	
Clover pounds. Timothy do Other do	9,750,064 17,333,144 4,342,926	1,563,304 1,153,066 451,595	7, 116, 220 13, 610, 257 3, 613, 026	1,294,944 1,038,301 401,925	5, 886, 943 15, 139, 913 5, 665, 547	1,092,525 937,820 701,101	
Total grass and clover seedpounds	31, 426, 134	3, 167, 965	24, 339, 503	2, 735, 170	26, 692, 403	2, 731, 446	
All other seeds		589, 114		759,026		1, 231, 159	
Total seeds		3,861,064		3, 538, 508		4,001,723	
Spirits, distilled. (See Liquors, alcoholic.)		76, 297		250, 827		287, 484	

Table 196.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1917.—Continued.

			Year endin	g June 30—			
Article exported.	1915		1916		1917 (preliminary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
VEGETABLE MATTER—con.							
Starch pounds Stearin, vegetable do Straw long tons	107, 036, 638 1,824, 011 260	\$2,939,453 144,850 4,911	210, 185, 192 1, 455, 341 980	\$5,576,914 158,481 10,989	146, 424, 342 1, 321, 773 1, 098	\$4,721,567 179,092 12,951	
Sugar, molasses, and sirup: Molassesgallons Sirupdo Sugar—	1,148,741 11,439,133	145, 274 1, 653, 495	4,387,369 10,031,693	524, 861 2, 107, 068	2,892,061 10,328,023	443, 112 4, 090, 150	
Refinedpounds	549, 007, 411	25, 615, 016	1,630,150,863	79, 390, 147	1,248,840,336	77, 090, 608	
Total sugar, molas- ses, and sirup		27, 413, 785		82,022,076		81,623,870	
Tobacco: Leafpounds Stems and trimmings,	347, 997, 276	44, 479, 890	436, 466, 512	53,014,852	406, 425, 777	59, 787, 266	
pounds	348, 815	13,939	6, 826, 644	350, 343	5, 172, 639	166, 973	
Totalpounds	348, 346, 091	44, 493, 829	443, 293, 156	53, 365, 195	411,598,416	59, 954, 239	
Vegetables; Fresh or dried— Beans and peas, bushels Onionsbushels Potatoesdo	1,214,281 727,983 3,135,474	3,638,526 602,585 2,345,731	1,760,383 563,739 4,017,760	5,914,198 578,792 3,485,740	2,164,943 409,301 2,489,001	10, 427, 742 749, 959 3, 514, 379	
Total fresh or dried, bushels	5,077,738	6, 586, 842	6,341,882	9, 978, 730	5,063,245	14, 692, 080	
Prepared or preserved— Canned		1, 898, 840 959, 016 1, 368, 453		2,529,694 1,166,811 2,277,177		4,765,136 821,151 2,012,343	
Total prepared or preserved		4, 226, 309		5, 973, 682		7, 598, 630	
Total vegetables		10, 813, 151		15,952,412		22, 290, 710	
Vinegar gallons Wines. (See Liquors, alco- holic.)	106,708	17, 731	225, 162	33,635	284, 837	48, 896	
Yeast		230, 409		418, 817		1,021,651	
Total vegetable mat- ter, including forest products		1,209,109,785		1,171,875,752		1,523,026,421	
products		1,156,556,249		1,103,720,273		1,454,136,937	
Total agricultural exports, including forest products. Total agricultural exports, excluding		1,528,491,143		1,586,226,929		2,038,739,191	
forest products		1,475,937,607		1,518,071,450		1,909,849,707	

Table 197.—Foreign trade of the United States in agricultural products, 1852-1917.

[Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. All values are gold.]

	Agricu	ltural expo	rts.1	Agricultural	imports.1	
Year ending June 30—	Domest	ic.			D	Excess of agricultural exports (+)
	Total.	Percentage of all exports.	Foreign.	Total.	Percentage of all imports.	or of imports (—).
Average:						
1852-1856	\$164, 895, 146	80.9	\$8,059,875	\$77,847,158	29.1	+\$95,107,86
1857-1861 1862-1866	215, 708, 845 148, 865, 540	81. 1 75. 7	10,173,833 9,287,669	121,018,143 122,221,547	38. 2 43. 0	+104,864,53 + 35,931,66
1867-1871	250, 713, 058	76.9	8, 538, 101	179,774,000	42.3	+ 79,477,15
1872-1876	396, 666, 397	78.5	8, 853, 247	263, 155, 573	46.5	+142,364,07
1877-1881	591, 350, 518	80.4	8,631,780	266, 383, 702	50.4	+333,598,59
1882-1886	557, 472, 922	76.3	9,340,463	311.707.564	46.8	+255, 105, 82
1887-1891	573, 286, 616	74.7	6,982,328	366,950,109	43.3	+213, 318, 83
1892-1896	638, 748, 318	73.0	8, 446, 491	398, 332, 043	51.6	+248, 862, 76
1897-1901 1902-1906	827, 566, 147	65.9 59.5	10,961,539	376,549,697 487,881,038	50.2 46.3	+461,977,98
1907-1911	879, 541, 247 975, 398, 554	53.9	11, 922, 292 12, 126, 228	634, 570, 734	45.2	+403, 582, 50 +352, 954, 04
901	951, 628, 331	65. 2	11,293,045	391,931,051	47.6	+570,990,32
902	857, 113, 533	63.2	10, 308, 306	413,744,557	45.8	+453, 677, 28
903	878, 480, 557	63.1	13,505,343	456, 199, 325	44.5	+435, 786, 57
904	859, 160, 264	59.9	12, 625, 036	461, 434, 851	46.6	+410, 350, 43
905	826, 904, 777	55.4	12, 316, 525	553, 851, 214	49, 6	+285,370,08
906	976,047,104	56.8	10,856,259	554, 175, 242	45.2	+432,728,12
907	1,054,405,416	56.9	11,613,519	626, 836, 808	43.7	+439, 182, 12
908	1,017,396,404	55.5	10, 298, 514	539, 690, 121	45.2	+488,004,79
909 910	903, 238, 122 871, 158, 425	55. 1 50. 9	9,584,934 14,469,627	638, 612, 692 687, 509, 115	48.7 44.2	+274,210,36 +198,118,93
				''		
911 912	1,030,794,402	51.2	14,664,548	680, 204, 932	44.5	+365, 254, 01
913	1,050,627,131 1,123,651,985	48.4 46.3	12, 107, 656 15, 029, 444	783, 457, 471 815, 300, 510	47.4 45.0	+279,277,31 +323,380,91
914	1, 113, 973, 635	47.8	17, 729, 462	924, 247, 116	48.8	+207,456,48
915	1,475,937,607	54.3	34, 420, 077	910, 786, 289	54.4	+599,571,30
916	1,518,071,450	85.5	42, 087, 535	1, 189, 704, 830	54.i	+370, 454, 15
917 (preliminary)	1,969,849,707	81.6		1, 403, 801, 231	52.8	+577, 219, 9

¹ Not including forest products.

Table 198.—Value of principal groups of farm and forest products exported from and imported into the United States, 1915–1917.

[Compiled from reports on the Foreign Commerce of the United States.]

	Exports (domestic mer	chandise).		Imports.				
Article.	Year ending June 30—								
	1915	1916	1917 (prel.),	1915	1916	1917 (prel.).			
FARM PRODUCTS.									
ANIMAL MATTER.									
Animals, live	\$77,953,686 14,265,879 5,003,764	\$99,671,296 24,257,572 6,134,441	\$89,382,954 49,406,984 7,570,411	\$22,279,081 14,704,277 438,760	\$18,649,079 9,828,919 110,638	\$16,602,850 7,071,113 268,286			
crude	281,806	312, 11 3	368,862	2,502,628	2,721,151	1,479,216			
Silk. Wool Packing-house prod-	8, 403 2, 216, 187	54,017 2,264,320	18,418 1,230,296	83, 130, 557 68, 242, 568	124,333,655 142,420,734	160,571,808 131,137,170			
uctsOther animal matter	217, 904, 852 1, 746, 781	279,053,697 2,603,721	364, 956, 849 2, 782, 996	142,484,247 8,003,170	183,611,351 2,331,714	239, 129, 197 4, 203, 659			
Total animal matter.	319,381,358	414, 351, 177	515,712,770	336,785,283	484,007,241	560, 463, 308			

Table 198.—Value of principal groups of farm and forest products exported from and imported into the United States, 1915-1917—Continued.

[Compiled from reports on the Foreign Commerce of the United States.]

	Exports (domestic mer	chandise).		Imports.	
Article.			Year endin	g June 30—		·
	1915	1916	1917 (prel.).	1915	1916	1917 (prel.).
FARM PRODUCTS-Con.						
VEGETABLE MATTER.						
Argols or wine lees			 <u></u>	\$3,094,380	\$5,306,246	\$3,824,882
Cocoa and chocolate	\$1,934,166 7,302,605	\$1,668,657 5,739,323	\$3,451,518 6,849,005	23,478,156 106,765,644	35, 804, 242 115, 485, 970	40,387,418 133,184,000
Coffee	376, 217, 972	374, 186, 247	543, 100, 542	23,208,960	40, 150, 342	40, 429, 526
Fibers, vegetable,	,,	,,	,,	l ' '	1 ' '	1 ''
other				40,420,017 27,081,391	59,460,062	67,709,758 25,315,943
FruitsGinseng	34,229,906	36,072,951	37,653,160	27,081,391	23, 285, 829	20,315,943
Glucose and grape sugar.	919, 931 3, 885, 233 572, 951, 335 1, 980, 297	1,597,508 4,734,961	7.361.231			
Grain and grain products	572,951,335	434,608,279	585,601,908	12,518,356	15,637,360 679,412	49,396,371
Hay	1,980,297	434,608,279 3,267,028 4,386,929	1,386,208 7,361,231 585,601,908 1,685,836 775,621	12,518,356 228,906 2,778,735	679,412	628,021 59,291
HopsIndigo	3,948,020	1,380,929	115,621	1 508 079	144,627 8,235,670	3,419,873
Licorice root				1,252,989	1.609.571	2, 190, 822
Liquors, alcoholic Nursery stock (plants,	3,396,500	12,577,611	20,875,950	1,596,978 1,252,989 13,404,903	1,609,571 16,685,356	17,679,132
trees, etc.)	170, 218 703, 211	203,671 892,277	219,618 1,741,037	3,751,550 16,830,932	3,689,364 21,172,417	3,955,709 32,865,014
Nuts Oil cake and oil cake	1	1		, -		05,000,011
meal	28,879,051 25,831,745	28,561,303 27,165,026	31,286,840 26,280,019	219,635 24,781,279	408,808 33,933,054 879,699	554,871
Oil, vegetable	25,831,745	27, 165, 026	26,280,019	24,781,279	33,933,054	46, 993, 166 843, 418
Oplum, crude				2,445,005	879,000	843,418
and broken rice	3,178,998	4,953,601	9,502,172	6,304,216 1,434,219 23,054,820 5,927,359	6,093,611	5,773,797
Sago, tapioca, etc	. 	. 	l	1,434,219	2,226,697	3,712,956
Seeds	3,861,064	3,538,508	4,001,723	23,054,820	2,226,697 33,571,760 8,948,729	35,879,665 7,744,143
Spices	76,297	250, 827 5, 576, 914	287,484	5,927,359	8,948,729	7,744,143
Starch Sugar, molasses, and	2,939,453	3,310,914	4,721,567	343,805	123,838	973,530
sirup	27,413,785	82,022,076	81,623,870	175,956,108	212, 545, 293 20, 599, 857 24, 629, 195 1, 697, 543	241, 892, 265
Tea	l. 			175,956,108 17,512,619 27,160,570	20,599,857	241, 892, 265 19, 265, 264
Tobacco	44,493,829	53,365,195	59,954,239	27, 160, 570	24,629,195	25, 481, 979
Vanilla beans	10,813,151	15,952,412	22, 290, 710	1,863,515	10,811,393	1,662,578
Wax, vegetable	I 	10,002,412	22,200,110	1,012,402	1.580.530	29,150,889 1,739,199
Other vegetable matter	1,429,482	2,398,969	3,486,679	9,329,732 1,012,402 243,817	1,580,530 301,114	624,443
Total vegetable mat-	1 150 550 040	1 102 700 072	1 454 126 027	574 001 000	705 607 500	042 207 007
ter	1,156,556,249	1,103,720,273		574,001,006	705,697,589	843, 337, 923
Total farm products.	1,475,937,607	1,518,071,450	1,969,849,707	910,786,289	1,189,704,830	1,403,801,231
FARM PRODUCTS.						
Contemand on some hard-	l	1		9 760 00*	2 104 004	2
Cork wood or cork bark Dyewoods, and extracts				2,762,895	3,134,884	3,870,389
of	. 	l .		1,142,031	4,289,247	4, 479, 195
India rubber				83,030,269	158, 586, 193	193, 118, 855
Gums, other than india		ĺ	1	1		
rubber	11, 127, 239	19 509 607	15,607,311	15, 210, 150 5, 102	14,827,537	21,510,283
Naval stores	2,247,881	13,503,607 6,026,474	3,958,480	5,343,263	8, 189 8, 837, 297	8,631 7,930,698
Wood:	2,211,001	0,020,	0,200,200	1	0,00.,20.	1,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
Cabinet, unsawed				4,271,775 23,507,591 6,572,839	4,011,107	4, 266, 850
Lumber	34,010,121	40,709,336	41,010,653	23,507,591	29,641,942 6,373,749	32,089,062 6,889,123
Pulp wood Timber and logs	4,061,499	5,042,179	5, 205, 244	1,263,641	1 417 850	1 1 270 348
Rattan and reeds	2,001,409		 	1 771.628	1,417,859 1,720,816 16,867,850 3,134,635	1,171,052
Wood pulp	36 9, 969	1,703,374 1,170,509	2,018,974 1,088,822	19,881,111 2,087,198	16,867,850	1,171,052 42,461,994 3,627,957
Other forest products	736, 827	1,170,509	1,088,822	2,087,198	3,134,635	3,627,957
Total forest products.	52, 553, 536	68, 155, 479	68, 889, 484	165, 849, 493	252, 851, 305	322,694,497
Total farm and forest						
products	1,528,491.143	1,586,226.929	2,038,739.191	1,076,635.782	1,442,556.135	1,726,495,728
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TABLE 199.—Exports of selected domestic agricultural products, 1852-1917.

[Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. Where figures are lacking, either there were no exports or they were not separately classified for publication. "Beef salted or pickled," and "Pork, salted or pickled," barrels, 1851-1865, were reduced to pounds at the rate of 200 pounds per barrel, and tieroes, 1855-1865, at the rate of 200 pounds per tieroe; cottonseed oil, 1910, pounds reduced to gallons at the rate of 7.5 pounds per gallon. It is assumed that I barrel of corn meal is the product of 4 bushels of corn, and 1 barrel of wheat flour the product of 5 bushels of wheat in 1880 and subsequently.]

				Packing-house products.							
Year ending June 30—	Cattle.	Cheese.	Beef, cured— salted or pickled.	Beef, fresh.	Beef oils—oleo oil.	Beef tallow.	Beef and its products— total, as far as ascertain— able.1				
A verage: 1852-1856. 1857-1861. 1862-1866. 1867-1871. 1872-1876.	20, 294 6, 531	Pounds. 6, 200, 385 13, 906, 430 42, 683, 073 52, 880, 978 87, 173, 752	Pounds. 25, 980, 520 26, 985, 890 27, 662, 720 26, 954, 656 35, 826, 646		Pounds.	Pounds. 7, 468, 910 13, 214, 614 43, 202, 724 27, 577, 269 78, 994, 360	Pounds. 33, 449, 430 40, 200, 494 70, 865, 444 54, 531, 925 114, 821, 006				
1877-1881 1882-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901	127, 045 131, 605 244, 394 349, 032 415, 488 503, 103	129,670,479 108,790,010 86,354,842 66,905,798 46,108,704 19,244,482	40, 174, 643 47, 401, 470 65, 613, 851 64, 898, 780 52, 242, 288 59, 208, 292	69,601,120 97,327,819 136,447,554 207,372,575 305,626,184 272,148,180	30, 276, 133 50, 482, 249 102, 038, 519 139, 373, 402 156, 925, 317	96, 822, 695 48, 745, 416 91, 608, 126 56, 976, 840 86, 082, 497 59, 892, 601	218, 709, 987 225, 625, 631 411, 797, 859 507, 177, 430 637, 268, 235 622, 843, 230				
1907-1911 1901	459, 218 392, 884 402, 178 593, 409	9, 152, 083 39, 813, 517 27, 203, 184 18, 987, 178 23, 335, 172 10, 134, 424	53, 312, 632 48, 632, 727 52, 801, 220 57, 584, 710 55, 934, 705	351,748,333 301,824,473 254,795,963 299,579,671 236,486,568	161, 651, 413 138, 546, 088 126, 010, 339 165, 183, 839 145, 228, 245	77, 166, 889 34, 065, 758 27, 368, 924 76, 924, 174 63, 536, 992	705, 104, 772 596, 254, 520 546, 055, 244 663, 147, 095 575, 874, 718				
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	423, 051 349, 210 207, 542 139, 430	16, 562, 451 17, 285, 230 8, 439, 031 6, 822, 842 2, 846, 709	81,088,098 62,645,281 46,958,367 44,494,210 36,554,266	268, 054, 227 281, 651, 502 201, 154, 105 122, 952, 671 75, 729, 666	209, 658, 075 195, 337, 176 212, 541, 157 179, 985, 246 126, 091, 675	97, 567, 156 127, 857, 739 91, 397, 507 53, 332, 767 29, 379, 992	732, 884, 572 689, 752, 420 579, 303, 478 418, 844, 332 286, 295, 874				
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	105, 506 24, 714 18, 376 5, 484 21, 287	10,366,605 6,337,359 2,599,058 2,427,577 55,362,917 44,394,301 66,087,213	40, 283, 749 38, 087, 907 25, 856, 919 23, 265, 974 31, 874, 743 38, 114, 682 58, 693, 667	42,510,731 15,264,320 7,362,3×8 6,394,404 170,440,934 231,214,000 197,181,101	138, 696, 906 126, 467, 124 92, 849, 757 97, 017, 065 80, 481, 946 102, 645, 914 67, 113, 421	29, 813, 154 39, 451, 419 30, 586, 350 15, 812, 831 20, 239, 988 16, 288, 743 15, 256, 844	265, 923, 983 233, 924, 626 170, 208, 320 151, 212, 009 394, 960, 962 457, 555, 572 424, 409, 382				

¹ Includes canned, cured, and fresh beef, oleo oil, oleomargarine, tallow and stearin from animal fats.

Table 199.—Exports of selected domestic agricultural products, 1852-1917—Continued.

		Paci						
Year ending June 30—	Pork, cured— bacon.	Pork, cured— hams and shoulders.	Pork, cured— salted or pickled.	Pork— lard.	Pork and its products— total, as far as ascertain- able.1	Apples, fresh.	Corn and corn meal (in terms of grain).	
Average: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	Pounds. 30,005,479 30,583,297 10,796,961 45,790,113 313,402,401 643,633,709	Pounds.	Pounds. 40,542,600 34,854,400 52,550,785 28,879,085 60,429,361 85,968,138	Pounds. 33,354,976 37,965,993 89,138,251 53,579,373 194,197,714 331,457,591	Pounds. 103, 903, 056 103, 403, 680 252, 485, 970 128, 248, 571 568, 029, 477 1, 075, 793, 475	Barrels. 37, 412 57, 045 119, 433 132, 756 509, 735	Bushels. 7, 123, 286 6, 557, 610 12, 059, 794 9, 924, 235 38, 560, 557 88, 190, 030	
1882-1886	355, 905, 444 419, 935, 416 438, 847, 549 536, 287, 266 292, 721, 953 209, 005, 144	47,634,675 60,697,365 96,107,152 200,853,226 206,902,427 189,603,211	72,354,682 73,984,682 64,827,470 112,788,498 116,823,284 90,809 879	263, 425, 058 381, 388, 854 451, 547, 135 652, 418, 143 592, 130, 894 519, 746, 378	739, 455, 913 936, 247, 966 1, 052, 133, 760 1, 528, 138, 779 1, 242, 136, 649 1, 028, 996, 659	401,886 522,511 520,810 779,980 1,368,608 1,225,655	49, 992, 203 54, 606, 273 63, 979, 898 192, 531, 378 74, 615, 465 56, 568, 030	
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	383, 150, 624 207, 336, 000 249, 665, 941	216, 571, 803 227, 653, 232 214, 183, 365 194, 948, 864 203, 458, 724	138, 643, 611 115, 896, 275 95, 287, 374 112, 224, 861 118, 887, 189	611, 357, 514 556, 840, 222 490, 755, 821 561, 302, 643 610, 238, 899	1, 462, 369, 849 1, 337, 315, 909 1, 042, 119, 570 1, 146, 255, 441 1, 220, 031, 970	883,673 459,719 1,656,129 2,018,262 1,499,942	181, 405, 473 28, 028, 688 76, 639, 261 58, 222, 061 90, 293, 483	
1906 1907 1908 1909	250, 418, 699 241, 189, 929 244, 578, 674	194, 210, 949 209, 481, 496 221, 769, 634 212, 170, 224 146, 885, 385	141, 820, 720 166, 427, 409 149, 505, 937 52, 354, 980 40, 031, 599	741,516,886 627,559,660 603,413,770 528,722,933 362,927,671	1, 464, 960, 356 1, 268, 065, 412 1, 237, 210, 760 1, 053, 142, 056 707, 110, 062	1,208,989 1,539,287 1,049,545 896,279 922,078	119, 893, 833 86, 368, 228 55, 063, 860 37, 665, 040 38, 128, 498	
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	208, 574, 208 200, 993, 584 193, 964, 252 346, 718, 227 579, 808, 786	157, 709, 316 204, 044, 491 159, 544, 687 165, 881, 791 203, 701, 114 282, 208, 611 266, 655, 581	45, 729, 471 56, 321, 469 53, 749, 023 45, 543, 085 45, 655, 574 63, 460, 713 47, 001, 621	476, 107, 857 532, 255, 865 519, 025, 384 481, 457, 792 475, 531, 908 427, 011, 338 444, 787, 521	879, 455, 006 1,071,951,724 984,696,710 921,913,029 1,106,180,488 1,462,697,062 1,499,476,444	1,721,106 1,456,381 2,150,132 1,506,569 2,351,501 1,466,321 1,739,997	65, 614, 522 41, 797, 291 50, 780, 143 10, 725, 819 50, 668, 303 89, 896, 928 66, 753, 194	

¹ Includes canned, fresh, salted or pickled pork, lard, neutral lard, bacon and hams.

Table 199.—Exports of selected domestic agricultural products, 1852–1917—Continued.

		·					
Year ending June 30—	Lard compounds.	Cotton.	Glucose and grape sugar.	Corn-oil cake and oil cake meal.	Cottonseed- oil cake and oil-cake meal.	Prunes.	Tobacco.
Average: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	Pounds.	Pounds. 1, 110, 498, 083 1, 125, 715, 497 137, 582, 133 902, 410, 338 1, 248, 805, 497 1, 738, 892, 268	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds. 140, 183, 800 167, 710, 800 140, 207, 850 194, 753, 537 241, 848, 410 266, 315, 190
1882-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	21, 792, 477 52, 954, 358 75, 765, 254	1,968,178,266 2,439,650,456 2,736,655,351 3,447,909,53 3,632,267,952 4,004,770,051	4, 473, 550 27, 686, 298 125, 574, 007 209, 279, 772 154, 866, 980 145, 064, 783	21, 888, 135 61, 732, 807	1,005,099,895 1,066,790,196 989,738,130	48, 550, 774 47, 039, 287	237, 941, 913 259, 248, 361 281, 746, 279 304, 401, 701 325, 538, 515 334, 395, 923
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	53, 603, 545 61, 215, 187	3, 359, 062, 360 3, 528, 974, 636 3, 569, 141, 969 3, 069, 855, 906 4, 339, 322, 077	125, 239, 981 152, 768, 716 175, 250, 580	12,703,209 14,740,498 8,093,222 14,014,885 24,171,127	1, 258, 687, 317 1, 050, 466, 246 1, 100, 392, 988 820, 349, 073 1, 251, 907, 996	10, 021, 564 23, 358, 849 66, 385, 215 73, 146, 214 54, 993, 849	315,787,782 301,007,365 368,184,084 311,971,831 334,302,091
1906		3, 634, 045, 170 4, 518, 217, 220 3, 816, 998, 693 4, 447, 985, 202 3, 206, 708, 226		48, 420, 942 56, 808, 972 66, 127, 704 53, 233, 890 49, 108, 598			
1911	73, 754, 400 62, 522, 888 67, 456, 832 58, 303, 564 69, 980, 614 52, 843, 311 56, 279, 393	4, 033, 940, 915 5, 535, 125, 429 4, 562, 295, 675 4, 760, 940, 538 4, 403, 578, 499 3, 084, 070, 125 3, 088, 067, 205	181, 963, 046 171, 156, 259 200, 149, 246 199, 530, 874 158, 462, 508 186, 406, 182 215, 023, 315	83, 384, 870 72, 490, 021 76, 262, 845 59, 030, 623 45, 026, 125 18, 996, 490 15, 739, 812	804, 596, 955 1, 293, 690, 138 1, 128, 092, 367 799, 974, 252 1, 479, 065, 015 1, 057, 221, 569 1, 150, 159, 691	51,030,711 74,328,074 117,950,875 69,813,711 43,478,892 57,422,827 59,645,141	355, 327, 072 379, 845, 320 418, 796, 906 449, 749, 982 348, 346, 091 443, 293, 156 411, 598, 418
Year ending June 30—	Норв.	Oils, veg- etable— cotton- seed oil.	Rice and rice bran, meal, and polish.	Sugar, raw and refined.	Wheat.	Wheat flour.	Wheat and wheat flour (in terms of grain).
Average: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1877-1881	6,486,616	Gallons. 547, 450 4, 498, 436	65,732,080 2,257,860	Pounds. 7,730,32 6,015,05 3,007,77 4,356,90 20,142,16 41,718,44	Bushels. 4,715,021 8 12,378,351 7 22,529,735 0 22,106,833 9 48,957,518 107,780,556	Barrels. 2, 891, 562 3, 318, 280 8, 530, 757 2, 585, 115 3, 415, 871 5, 375, 583	Bushels. 19, 172, 830 28, 969, 749 40, 183, 518 35, 032, 409 66, 036, 873 133, 262, 753
1882-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	7,184,147 15,146,667 15,467,314 11,476,272 14,774,185	42, 863, 203 38, 605, 737 38, 783, 550	561, 406 3, 209, 653 10, 277, 947 18, 407, 139 45, 977, 670 27, 194, 549	107, 129, 77, 75, 073, 83, 13, 999, 34, 11, 213, 66, 14, 807, 01, 61, 429, 80,	82,883,913 84,739,011 99,913,895 120,247,430 70,527,077 62,854,580	8, 620, 199 11, 286, 568 15, 713, 279 17, 151, 070 15, 444, 100 11, 840, 699	121, 674, 809 115, 528, 568 170, 623, 652 197, 427, 246 140, 025, 529 116, 137, 728
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	14, 858, 612		25, 527, 846 29, 591, 274 19, 750, 448 29, 121, 763 113, 282, 760	8, 874, 86 7, 572, 45 10, 520, 15 15, 418, 53 18, 348, 07		18,650,979 17,759,203 19,716,484 16,999,432 8,826,335	215, 990, 073 234, 772, 516 202, 905, 598 120, 727, 613 44, 112, 910
1906. 1907. 1908. 1909.	. 10,000,202		38, 142, 108 30, 174, 371 28, 444, 415 20, 511, 429 26, 779, 188	22, 175, 84 21, 237, 60 25, 510, 64 79, 946, 29 125, 507, 02	8 34,973,291 76,569,423 3 100,371,057 7 66,923,244 46,679,876	13, 919, 048 15, 584, 667 13, 927, 247 10, 521, 161 9, 040, 987	97, 609, 007 146, 700, 425 163, 043, 669 114, 268, 468 87, 364, 318
1911	. 13, 104, 774 . 12, 190, 663 . 17, 591, 195 . 24, 262, 896 . 16, 210, 443 . 22, 409, 818 . 4, 874, 876	80,069,459 53,262,796 42,031,052 25,728,411 42,448,870 35,534,941 21,198,086	30, 083, 341 39, 446, 571 38, 908, 057 22, 414, 326 77, 480, 085 121, 967, 465 180, 485, 435	54, 947, 44 79, 594, 03 43, 994, 76 50, 895, 72 549, 007, 41 1, 630, 150, 86 1, 248, 840, 33	4 23,729,302 4 30,160,212 1 91,602,974 6 92,393,775 1 259,642,533 3 173,274,015 149,837,427	10, 129, 485 11, 006, 487 11, 394, 805 11, 821, 461 16, 182, 765 15, 520, 669 11, 942, 505	69, 311, 760 79, 689, 404 141, 132, 166 145, 590, 349 332, 464, 975 243, 117, 025 203, 578, 699

TABLE 200.—Imports of selected agricultural products, 1852-1917.

[Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. Where figures are lacking, either there were no imports or they were not separately classified for publication. "Silk" includes, prior to 1831, only "Silk, raw or as recled from the occoon;" in 1831 and 1832 are included this item and "Silk waste:" after 1882, both these items and "Silk cocoons." From "Cocoo and chocolate are omitted in 1800, 1861, and in 1872 to 1831, small guantities of chocolate, the official returns for which were given only in value. "Jute and Jute butts" includes in 1883 and 1859 an unknown quantity of "Sisal grass, coir, etc.." and in 1865–1868 an unknown quantity of "Hemp." Cattle hides are included in "Hides and skins other than cattle and goat." in 1895–1897. Olive oil for table use includes in 1862–1864 and 1885–1905 all olive oil. Sisal grass includes in 1884–1890 "Other vegetable substances." Hemp includes in 1885–1888 all substitutes for hemp.]

Year ending June 30—	Cheese.	Silk.	Wool.	Almonds.	Argols or wine lees.	Cocoa and chocolate, total.	Coffee.
Average: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876		Pounds. 681,669 1,094,948	Pounds. 19,007,447	Pounds. 3,480,807 3,251,091 2,482,063	Pounds. 1,354,947 2,360,529 4,951,473	Pounds. 2, 486, 572 3, 063, 893 2, 453, 141 3, 502, 614 4, 857, 364	Pounds. 196, 582, 863 216, 235, 060 124, 551, 992 248, 726, 019 307, 006, 928
1877-1881 1892-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906	8, 335, 323 9, 649, 752 12, 588, 515 22, 165, 754	1,922,269 4,672,846 6,564,121 8,382,892 10,962,210 17,187,544	62,744,282 83,293,800 117,763,889 162,640,491 163,979,079 193,656,402	5, 860, 728 7, 487, 676 7, 361, 198 10, 920, 881	12, 403, 256 17, 551, 967 21, 433, 570 26, 469, 990 24, 379, 847 27, 647, 440	6,315,488 11,568,173 18,322,049 25,475,234 38,209,423 70,901,254	384, 282, 199 529, 578, 782 509, 367, 994 507, 484, 217 816, 570, 082 980, 119, 167
1907-1911 1901 1902 1903 1904	15, 329, 099 17, 067, 714 20, 671, 381 22, 707, 103	22, 143, 461 10, 405, 555 14, 234, 826 15, 270, 859 16, 722, 709	199, 562, 649 103, 583, 505 166, 576, 966 177, 137, 796 173, 742, 834	5, 140, 232 9, 868, 982 8, 142, 164 9, 838, 852	29, 350, 692 28, 598, 781 29, 276, 148 29, 966, 557 24, 571, 730	47, 620, 204 52, 878, 587 65, 046, 884 75, 070, 746	934, 533, 322 854, 971, 310 1, 091, 004, 252 915, 086, 390 995, 043, 294
1905 1606 1907 1908 1909	27, 286, 866 33, 845, 766 32, 530, 830 35, 548, 143	22, 357, 307 17, 352, 021 18, 743, 904 16, 662, 132 25, 187, 957 23, 457, 223	249, 135, 746 201, 688, 668 203, 847, 545 125, 980, 524 266, 409, 304 263, 928, 232	11,745,081 15,009,326 14,233,613 17,144,968 11,029,421 18,556,356	26, 281, 931 28, 140, 835 30, 540, 893 26, 738, 834 32, 115, 646 28, 182, 956	77, 383, 024 84, 127, 027 97, 059, 513 86, 604, 684 132, 660, 931 111, 070, 834	1,047,792,964 851,668,933 985,321,473 890,640,057 1,049,858,768 871,469,516
1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916.	46, 542, 007	26, 666, 091 26, 584, 962 32, 101, 555 34, 545, 829 31, 052, 674 41, 925, 297 40, 351, 423	137, 647, 641 193, 400, 713 195, 293, 255 247, 648, 869 308, 083, 429 534, 828, 022 372, 372, 218	15, 522, 712 17, 231, 458 15, 670, 558 19, 038, 405 17, 111, 264 16, 596, 921 23, 424, 058	29, 175, 133 23, 661, 078 29, 479, 119 29, 793, 011 28, 624, 554 34, 721, 043 23, 925, 808	140, 970, 877 148, 785, 846 143, 509, 852 179, 384, 091 194, 734, 195 245, 579, 101 340, 483, 397	875, 366, 797 885, 201, 247 863, 130, 737 1, 001, 525, 317 1, 115, 690, 524 1, 201, 104, 485 1, 319, 870, 802

TABLE 200.—Imports of selected agricultural products, 1852-1817—Continued.

	_				-			
Year ending June 30—	Flax	. Hem	р. Нор	s.	Jute and jute butt			Molasses.
A verage: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	Long to 1, 1	ns. Long t 43 1, 2, 70 22, 60 22,	ons. Poun 574	• • • • • • • • • •	Long ton. 3, 24 17, 23 3, 21: 14, 90 49, 18 62, 49	Pound 4 1,372, 3 1,887, 9	573 892 15,566	Gallons. 28, 488, 888 30, 190, 875 34, 262, 933 53, 322, 088 44, 815, 321 32, 638, 963
1882-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	8, 5 9, 7	USI 4.	557 1,618 919 7,771 409 2,386 107 2,381 230 5,205 368 6,769	867 965	91, 05 104, 88 84, 11 93, 97 101, 51 100, 42	99,543, 96,111,		35, 019, 689 30, 543, 299 15, 474, 619 6, 321, 160 17, 191, 821 24, 147, 348
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	I	72 6, 55 4, 23 5, 89 3,	057 2,606 054 2,805 919 6,012 871 2,758 987 4,339	319	103, 144 128, 965 79, 700 96, 73 98, 21	1		11, 453, 156 14, 391, 215 17, 240, 399 18, 828, 530 19, 477, 885
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	9, 5 9, 5 9, 8	28 6, 70 5, 61 6,	317 10,113 718 6,211 213 8,493 208 7,386 423 3,200	, 893 , 265 , 574 , 560	103, 94, 104, 48 107, 53 156, 68 68, 15	9 66, 115, 3 109, 355, 5 97, 742, 5 82, 207,	863 54,513 720 52,467 776 61,902 496 93,253	16,021,076 24,630,935 18,882,756 22,092,696 31,292,165
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	7,7 10,9 12,4 9,8 4,6 6,9	85 8, 94 5, 39 6.	278 8,557 007 2,991 663 8,494 822 5,382 310 11,651 506 675 635 236	,531 ,125 ,144 ,025 ,332 ,704 ,849	65, 23: 101, 00: 125, 38: 106, 03: 83, 14: 108, 32: 112, 69:	4 115 KK	490 74, 308 225 68, 536 227 73, 823 131 49, 688 501 51,081 295 78, 892 224 76, 705	23, 838, 190 28, 828, 213 33, 926, 521 51, 410, 271 70, 839, 623 85, 716, 673 110, 237, 888
Year ending June	Olive oil, for table use.	Opium, crude.	Potatoes.	rie	ice, and the flour, the meal, d broken rice.	Sisal grass.	Sugar, raw and refined.	Tea.
A verage: 1852-1856	177, 947 152, 827 174, 555 218, 507	Pounds. 110, 143 113, 594 128, 590 209, 096 365, 071 407, 656	Bushels. 406, 611 251, 637 216, 077 254, 615 1, 850, 106		993,331,953,577,536,435,614,706	Long tons.	479,373,648 691,323,833 672,637,141 1,138,464,815 1,614,055,119 1,760,508,290	Pounds. 24, 959, 922 28, 149, 643 30, 869, 450 44, 052, 805 62, 436, 359 67, 583, 083
1882-1886	909, 249 1, 783, 425 3, 827, 224	391,946 475,299 528,785 567,681 537,576 489,513	2,834,736 3,878,580 1,804,649 495,150 2,662,121 1,907,405	215	, 870, 675 , 868, 635 , 807, 652 , 231, 669 , 913, 684 , 892, 467	40, 274 50, 129 70, 297 96, 832 102, 440	2, 458, 490, 409 3,003, 283, 854 3, 827, 799, 481 3, 916, 433, 945 3, 721, 782, 404 3, 997, 156, 461	74, 781, 418 84, 275, 049 92, 782, 175 86, 809, 270 98, 677, 584 96, 742, 977
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	1,923,174	583, 208 534, 189 516, 570 573, 055 594, 680	371, 911 7, 656, 162 358, 505 3, 166, 581 181, 199		, 199, 710 , 658, 894 , 656, 284 , 221, 772 , 483, 515	70,076 89,583 87,025 109,214 100,301	3,975,005,840 3,031,915,875 4,216,108,106 3,700,623,613 3,680,932,998	89,806,453 75,579,125 108,574,905 112,905,541 102,706,599
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	2, 447, 131 3, 449, 517 3, 799, 112 4, 129, 454 3, 702, 210	469, 387 565, 252 285, 845 517, 388 449, 239	1,948,160 176,917 403,952 8,383,966 353,208		,547,957 ,603,180 ,783,392 ,900,422 ,400,545	98, 037 99, 061 103, 994 91, 451 99, 968	3,979,331,430 4,391,839,975 3,371,997,112 4,189,421,018 4,094,545,936	93,621,750 86,368,490 94,149,564 114,916,520 85,626,370
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	4,405,827 4,836,515 5,221,001 6,217,560 6,710,967 7,224,431 7,533,149	629, 842 399, 837 508, 433 455, 200 484, 027 146, 658 86, 812	218, 984 13, 734, 695 327, 230 3, 645, 993 270, 942 209, 532 3, 079, 025	208 190 222 300 277 264 216	,774,795 ,063,331 ,103,547 ,194,917 ,191,472 ,324,005 ,048,858	117, 727 114, 467 153, 869 215, 547 185, 764 228, 610 143, 407	3, 937, 978, 265 4, 104, 618, 393 4, 740, 041, 488 5, 066, 821, 873 5, 420, 981, 867 5, 633, 161, 749 5, 332, 745, 854	102, 563, 942 101, 406, 816 94, 812, 800 91, 130, 815 96, 987, 942 109, 865, 935 103, 364, 410

Table 200.—Imports of selected agricultural products, 1852-1917—Continued.

	•	•	•	•	•		
Year ending June 30—	Beeswax.	Onions.	Plums and prunes.	Raisins.	Currants.	Dates.	Figs.
A verage: 1887-1891 1892-1896 1397-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	279, 839 265, 143 456, 727	Bushels. 628,358 924,418 1,103,034	Pounds. 60, 237, 642 12, 405, 549 560, 762 563, 900	Pounds. 38,545,635 17,745,925 7,689,593 7,344,676 5,283,145	Pounds. 34,397,754 27,520,440 35,457,213 35,258,628	Pounds. 14,914,349 15,653,642 25,649,432 26,059,353	Pounds. 9, 783, 650 10, 117, 049 8, 919, 921 14, 334, 760 19, 848, 037
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	408,706 488,576 425,168	774, 042 796, 316 925, 599 1, 171, 242 856, 366	745, 974 522, 478 633, 819 494, 105 671, 604	3,860,836 6,683,545 6,715,675 6,867,617 4,041,689	16,049,198 36,238,976 33,878;209 38,347,649 31,742,919	20,013,681 21,681,159 43,814,917 21,058,164 19,257,250	9, 933, 871 11, 087, 131 16, 482, 142 13, 178, 061 13, 364, 107
1906	917,088 671,526 764,937	872,566 1,126,114 1,275,333 574,530 1,024,226	497, 494 323, 377 335, 089 296, 123	12, 414, 855 3, 967, 151 9, 132, 353 5, 794, 320 5, 042, 683	37, 078, 311 38, 392, 779 38, 652, 656 32, 482, 111 33, 326, 030	22, 435, 672 31, 270, 899 24, 958, 343 21, 869, 218 22, 693, 713	17, 562, 358 24, 346, 173 18, 836, 574 15, 235, 513 17, 362, 197
1911	1,076,741 828,793 1,412,200 1,564,506 2,146,380	1,514,967 1,436,037 789,458 1,114,811 829,177 815,872 1,757,948		2,479,220 3,255,861 2,579,705 4,554,549 2,806,806 1,024,296 1,850,219	33, 439, 565 33, 151, 396 30, 843, 735 32, 033, 177 30, 350, 527 25, 373, 029 10, 476, 534	29, 504, 592 25, 206, 248 34, 304, 951 34, 073, 606 24, 949, 374 31, 075, 424 25, 485, 361	23, 459, 728 18, 765, 408 16, 837, 819 19, 284, 868 20, 779, 730 7, 153, 250 16, 479, 733
Year ending June 30—	Hides and	skins, other	Other than cattle and goat.	Macaroni, vermicelli, and all similar prepara- tions.	Lemons.	Oranges.	Walnuts.
Average: 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	Pounds. 126, 995, 011 178, 681, 537	Pounds. 68, 052, 973 93, 674, 819 94, 329, 840	Pounds. 91,173,311 115,952,418 143,351,321	Pounds.	Pounds 153, 160, 863 153, 843, 434	Pounds. 41, 104, 544 12, 089, 790	Pounds.
1901	148, 627, 907 131, 644, 325 85, 370, 168	73, 745, 596 88, 038, 516 85, 114, 070 86, 338, 547 97, 803, 571	77, 989, 617 89, 457, 680 102, 340, 303 103, 024, 752 126, 893, 934	28, 787, 821 40, 224, 202 53, 441, 080	171, 923, 221	50, 332, 914 52, 742, 476 56, 872, 070 35, 893, 260 28, 880, 575	12, 362, 567 23, 670, 761 21, 684, 104
1906	134, 671, 020 98, 353, 249 192, 252, 083	111, 079, 391 101, 201, 596 63, 640, 758 104, 048, 244 115, 844, 758	158, 045, 419 135, 111, 199 120, 770, 918 148, 253, 998 174, 770, 732	77, 926, 029 87, 720, 730 97, 233, 708 85, 114, 003 113, 772, 801	178, 490, 008 135, 183, 550	18, 397, 429 8, 435, 873	24, 917, 028 32, 597, 592 28, 887, 110 26, 157, 708 33, 641, 466
1911 1912	150, 127, 796 251, 012, 513	86, 913, 842 95, 340, 703	137, 849, 757 191, 414, 882	114, 779, 116 108, 231, 028	134, 968, 924 145, 639, 396	7, 672, 186 7, 628, 662	33, 619, 434 37, 213, 674

Table 201.—Foreign trade of the United States in forest products, 1852-1917.

[Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. All values are gold.]

Y	Ехро	orts.	-	Excess of exports (+)
Year ending June 30—	Domestic.	Foreign.	Imports.	or of imports (-).
Average: 1832-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	\$6, 819, 079	\$694, 037	\$3, 256, 302	+ \$4, 256, 814
	9, 994, 808	962, 142	6, 942, 211	+ 4, 014, 739
	7, 366, 103	796, 076	8, 511, 370	- 347, 191
	11, 775, 297	690, 748	14, 812, 576	- 2, 346, 531
	17, 906, 771	959, 862	19, 728, 458	- 861, 825
	17, 579, 313	552, 514	22, 006, 227	- 3, 874, 400
1882-1886	24, 704, 992	1, 417, 226	34, 252, 753	- 8, 130, 535
1887-1891	26, 060, 729	1, 442, 760	39, 647, 287	- 12, 143, 798
1892-1896	29, 276, 428	1, 707, 307	45, 091, 081	- 14, 107, 346
1897-1901	45, 960, 863	3, 283, 274	52, 326, 879	- 3, 082, 742
1902-1906	63, 584, 670	3, 850, 221	79, 885, 457	- 12, 450, 566
1907-1911	88, 764, 471	6, 488, 455	137, 051, 471	- 41, 798, 545
1901	55, 369, 161	3, 599, 192	57, 143, 650	+ 1,824,703
	48, 928, 764	3, 609, 071	59, 187, 049	- 6,649,214
	58, 734, 016	2, 865, 325	71, 478, 022	- 9,878,681
	70, 085, 789	4, 177, 352	79, 619, 296	- 5,356,155
	63, 199, 348	3, 790, 097	92, 680, 555	- 25,691,110
1906	76, 975, 431	4, 809, 261	96, 462, 364	- 14, 677, 672
1907	92, 948, 705	5, 500, 331	122, 420, 776	- 23, 971, 740
1908	90, 362, 073	4, 570, 397	97, 733, 092	- 2, 800, 622
1909	72, 442, 454	4, 982, 810	123, 920, 126	- 46, 494, 862
1910	85, 030, 230	9, 801, 881	178, 871, 797	- 84, 039, 686
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 (preliminary)	103, 038, 892	7,586,854	162, 311, 565	- 51, 685, 819
	108, 122, 254	6,413,343	172, 523, 465	- 57, 987, 868
	124, 835, 784	7,431,851	180, 502, 444	- 48, 234, 809
	106, 978, 554	4,517,766	155, 261, 300	- 43, 764, 980
	52, 553, 536	5,089,299	165, 849, 493	- 108, 206, 658
	68, 155, 479	-4,364,335	252, 851, 305	- 180, 331, 491
	68, 889, 484	11,171,518	322, 604, 497	- 242, 633, 495

TABLE 202.—Exports of selected domestic forest products, 1852-1917.

[Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. Where figures are lacking, either there were no exports or they were not separately classified for publication.]

		Lumber.		ŀ		Timb	er.
Year ending June 30—	Boards, deals, and planks.	Shooks, other than box.	Staves.	Rosin.	Spirits of turpentine.	Hewn.	Sawed.
Avernge: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	M feet. 129, 499 205, 476 138, 020 138, 720 221, 658 303, 114		Number.	Barrels. 552, 210 664, 286 69, 314 491, 774 845, 803	Gallons. 1,369,250 2,735,104 107,162 2,093,412 7,438,556	Cubic fee t	
1882-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	433, 963 531, 755 616, 090 957, 218 212, 476 1, 649, 203	593, 054 435, 581 608, 797 765, 215 925, 828	51, 234, 056 56, 181, 900	1,289,869 1,533,834 2,006,427 2,477,696 2,453,280 2,355,500	9,301,894 10,794,025 14,258,928 18,349,386 16,927,090 16,658,955	13, 701, 663 6, 401, 543 6, 062, 418 5, 146, 927 8, 968, 469 3, 406, 245	218, 796 263, 641 428, 755 506, 212 479, 776
1901	1, 101, 815 942, 814 1, 065, 771 1, 426, 784 1, 283, 406	714, 651 788, 241 566, 205 533, 182 872, 192	47, 363, 262 46, 998, 512 55, 879, 010 47, 420, 095 48, 286, 285	2, 820, 815 2, 535, 962 2, 396, 498 2, 585, 108 2, 310, 275	20, 240, 851 19, 177, 788 16, 378, 787 17, 202, 808 15, 894, 813	4,624,698 5,388,439 3,291,498 3,788,740 3,856,623	533, 920 412, 750 530, 659 558, 690 486, 411
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910 1911	1,343,607 1,623,964 1,548,130 1,357,822 1,684,489 2,031,608	1,066,253 803,346 900,812 977,376 928,197 1,019,411	57, 586, 378 51, 120, 171 61, 696, 949 52, 583, 016 49, 783, 771 65, 725, 595	2,438,556 2,560,966 2,712,732 2,170,177 2,144,318 2,189,607	15, 981, 253 15, 854, 676 19, 532, 583 17, 502, 028 15, 587, 737 14, 817, 751	3,517,046 3,278,110 4,883,506 2,950,528 3,245,196 2,673,887 M feet.	552,548 600,865 463,440 383,309 451,721 499,547
1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917	2,306,680 2,550,308 2,405,296 1,129,205 1,177,331 1,044,999	1,161,591 1,710,095 867,805 620,043 611,556 10,070,343	64, 162, 599 89, 005, 624 77, 150, 535 39, 297, 268 57, 537, 610 61, 455, 882	2,474,460 2,806,046 2,417,950 1,372,316 1,571,279 1,634,430	19, 599, 241 21, 093, 597 18, 900, 704 9, 464, 120 9, 310, 268 8, 833, 972	31,067 34,502 29,859 6,118 9,628 7,615	406, 954 477, 135 411, 307 167, 671 191, 577 177, 074

^{&#}x27;Including "Joists and scantling" prior to 1884.

TABLE 203.—Imports of selected forest products, 1852-1917.

				Lun	ıber.		
Year ending June 30—	Camphor, crude.	India rubber.	Rubber gums, total.	Boards, deals, planks, and other sawed.	Shingles.	Shellac.	Wood pulp.
Average:	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	M feet.	М.	Pounds.	Long tone.
1852-1856	213, 720		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •				
1857-1861	360, 522		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •				
1862-1866	386, 731		••••			634,276	
1867-1871			1 7, 389, 890		<u>.</u>		
1872-1876			12,631,388	564, 642	88, 197		
1877-1881	1,515,614		15, 610, 634	417,907	55,394	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
1882-1886	1,958,608		24, 480, 997	577,728	87,760		l
1887-1891	2, 273, 883		33, 226, 520	646, 745	184,050	5,086,421	37,251
1892-1896	1,491,902	38,359,547	39, 671, 553	661, 495	201,000	5, 848, 339	42,771
1897-1901	1,858,018	47, 469, 136	52,974,744	566,394		8, 839, 232	46,827
1902-1906	2, 139, 183	57, 903, 641	75, 908, 633	727, 205	772,340	11,613,967	130,764
1907-1911	2,939,167	80, 129, 567	121,504,098	899,659	866, 565	19,046,030	319,007
1001-1011	2,000,101	30,120,001	121,001,000	- COU, COU	300,000	20,020,000	ت نص
1901	2,175,784	55, 275, 529	64,927,176	490,820	555,853	9,608,745	46,757
1902	1,831,058	50, 413, 481	67, 790, 069	665, 603	707, 614	9,064,789	67, 416
1903	2,472,440	55,010,571	69,311,678	720, 937	724, 131	11,590,725	116,881
1904	2,819,673	59,015,551	74, 327, 584	589, 232	770,373	10, 933, 413	144,796
1905	1,904,002	67, 234, 256	87,004,384	710, 538	758, 725	10,700,817	167,504
4000	- 000 -		01 100 171				
1906	1,668,744	1 57,844,345	81, 109, 451	949,717	900,856	15,780,090	157, 224
1907	3, 138, 070	1 76, 963, 838	106, 747, 589	934, 195	881,003	17,785,960	213, 110
1908	2,814,299	1 62, 233, 160	85, 809, 625	791, 288	988, 081	13, 361, 932	237, 514
1909	1,990,499	1 88, 359, 895	114,598,768	846,024	1,058,363	19, 185, 137	274,217
1910	3,026,648	1 101,044,681	154,620,629	1,054,416	762,798	29, 402, 182	378, 322
1911	3,726,319	72,046,260	145,743,880	872,374	642,582	15,494,940	491,873
1912	2, 154, 646	110, 210, 173	175, 965, 538	905, 275	514,657	18, 745, 771	477, 508
1913	3,709,264	113, 384, 359	170, 747, 339	1,090,628	580, 297	21,912,015	502,913
1914	3,476,908	131,995,742	161, 777, 250	928, 873	895,038	16, 719, 756	508.360
1915	3,729,207	172,068,428	196, 121, 979	939, 322	1,487,116	24, 153, 363	587, 922
1916	4, 574, 430	267, 775, 557	304, 182, 814	1,218,068	1,769,333	25, 817, 509	507.048
1917	6,884,950	333,373,711	364,913,711	1, 175, 180	1,924,139	32,539,522	699, 475
ATAI	U,003,80U	1 000,010,/11	1 002,010,/11	1 1.110.180	1.802.108	04,008,022	1 000,4/2

¹ Includes "Gutta-percha" only for 1867.

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TABLE 204.—Principal farm products imported from specified countries into the United States, 1915–1917.

			Year ending	g June 30—		
Country from which consigned, and article.	19	15	191	6	19:	17
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Brazil: Cocoa (crude),						
pounds	19,708,616 773,400,315	\$2,017,224 65,492,280	45,657,401 849,405,925	\$6,086,847 73,541,315	51,461,624 907,237,562	\$4,959,964 86,761,395
Bananasbunches Cocoapounds	11,957,935 40,728,851	3,483,373 5,407,262	4,927,435 39,933,405	1,445,493 6,038,670	2, 191, 516 54, 203, 374	677, 129 6, 510, 569
Canada: Teado China: Teado Colombia: Coffee.do	3, 446, 615 23, 100, 548 111, 677, 449	981,933 3,149,308 13,710,164	2,620,705 20,422,700 109,363,456	861,236 2,990,751 13,519,545	3,160,459 19,810,428 150,591,659	1,084,584 3,109,912 17,971,874
Cuba: Bananasbunches Sugar (raw).pounds:. Dominican Republic:	2,708,624 4,784,888,157	929, 761 156, 181, 349	2,859,021 5,150,851,544	1, 072 ,035 192,558,505	2,184,110 4,660,097,398	837,251 204,521,140
Dominican Republic: Cocoapounds Ecuador: Cocoado	46, 620, 464 33, 418, 752	5, 499 , 51 0 3, 35 1, 797	48,990,707 31,913,350	6,946,412 4,196,249	61,443,869 67,227,698	7,202,747 8,178,778
France: Cheesedo Olive oil (salad)	3,554,297	737, 212	2,321,543	784, 323	1,937,341	754,012
gallons	902,092 25,662,362	1,215,632 5,108,850	891, 769 16, 084, 0 5 8	1,897,850 3,855,856	726,771 8,482,290	1,211,731 2,545,286
Macaroni do do Olive oil (salad),	54,59 1,991	2,944,398	20, 221, 908	1,426,730	2,431,910	191,845
gallons	4,864,388 43,869,012 52,706,120	6,099,646 7,683,356 6,898,161	4,700,412 52,359,526 49,832,801	6,730,646 8,975,993 6,222,326	2,882,535 52,418,963 54,908,223	4,770,320 8,825,090 6,382,646
Cheesedo Coffeedo Philippine Islands:	2,210,861 1,583,672	287,620 253,731	578,201 50,896	121,568 10,884	249, 371 150, 000	68, 645 18, 00 0
Sugarpounds Portugal: Cocoa,	326,842,296	7,511,126	217, 190, 825	6,389,017	267,891,954	8,382,582
pounds Switzerland: Cheese, pounds	3, 516, 655 14, 766, 682	512,270 2,677,249	7,531,924 9,514,908	1,388,082 2,031,590	16,191,424	2,148,191 341,063
United Kingdom: Cocoapounds	21,062,767	2,578,996	13,408,058	2, 186, 624	11,650,811	1, 560, 314
Teado	12,869,968	3,386,476	19,066,241	4,670,251	13, 857, 721	3, 309, 507

Table 205.—Principal farm products exported to specified countries from the United States, 1915–1917.

			Year endin	g June 30—		
Country to which consigned, and article.	19	015	19	16	19	917
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Belgium:						
Cornbushels Wheatdo	103,927 5,320,685 5,737,181	\$82,324 6,392,090 603,344	4,550 2,682,919 60,160,749	\$4,191 3,342,519 6,251,526	581,371 2,698,044 65,219,598	\$590,771 4,887,416 8,508,658
Baconpounds Hams and shouldersdo	5, 737, 181	603,344	60, 160, 749	6, 251, 526	65, 219, 598	8,508,658
Larddo Brazil: Wheat flourbarrels	6,596,068 5,128,630 707,705	801,837 528,764 3,972,690	2,792,605 70,132,156 734,726	367,070 7,327,075	96,761,185 301,614	13,815,450 2,743,818
onada.	L L			4,210,205		2,743,818
Corn bushels Wheat do. Wheat four barrels Bacon pounds Hams and shoulders do.	8, 283, 156 19, 664, 674 110, 938 10, 025, 242 1, 514, 602 7, 721, 616 8, 500, 049	6, 154, 904 19, 941, 388 592, 011 1, 363, 621 219, 257 887, 910 870, 937 57, 066	6, 568, 407 6, 244, 732 50, 424 39, 590, 591 2, 673, 658 6, 330, 140 17, 835, 273 10, 762	4,969,459 7,430,824 254,717 5,342,490 370,783 635,024 1,701,324 54,631	15, 724, 738 4, 714, 836 77, 115 118, 709, 847 5, 616, 090	16, 158, 660
Wheat flour harrels	19,664,674	19,941,388	6, 244, 732	7,430,824	4,714,836	9, 856, 526 580, 326 21, 366, 111 1, 021, 892
Baconpounds	10,025,242	1,363,621	39, 590, 591	5,342,490	118, 709, 847	21,366,11
Hams and shouldersdo Larddo	1,514,602	219, 257	2,673,658	370,783	5,616,090 5,375,768	1,021,895 984,930
Pork, pickleddo hina: Wheat flour.barrels		870,937	17, 835, 273	1,701,324	1 10.929.411	2,501,890
nha•	13,273	57,066	10,762	54,631	9,806	44,532
Cornbushels Wheat flourbarrels Bacon pounds	2, 267, 305 924, 989 13, 360, 139 6, 842, 425 45, 349, 283	1,896,907 5,379,266 1,616,045 1,127,283 5,011,657	3, 231, 323 1, 124, 562 13, 543, 082 11, 493, 464 53, 811, 784 7, 846, 918 9, 527, 032	2,587,501 6,468,442 1,685,946 1,875,091 5,930,069	2,819,278 1,016,675 14,914,902 9,867,826 48,732,924 7,700,521 7,075,254	2,948,100 8,661,920 2,533,943 1,880,230 8,819,513
Wheat flourbarrels	924,989	5,379,266	1,124,562	6,468,442	1,016,675	8,661,925
Hams and shoulders, .do	6, 842, 425	1,127,283	11, 493, 464	1,875,091	9, 867, 826	1,880,230
Pork pickled do	45,349,283	5,011,657	53,811,784	5,930,069 888,699	48,732,924	8,819,512
Lard do do Pork, pickled do Denmark: Corn bushels.	3,874,892 11,169,550 35,588	428, 050 9, 052, 044 165, 057	9, 527, 032	7, 764, 187	7,075,254	1,145,958 9,205,072
'inland: Wheat flour.barrels 'rance:	35,588	165,057				
Wheat bushels Bacon pounds	49, 878, 655	66, 352, 832 5, 766, 832	21,802,818	27, 898, 643	16, 253, 262	31,698,762
Bacon pounds Lard do	49, 878, 655 44, 712, 253 32, 172, 876	5,766,832 3,503,946	21, 802, 818 52, 501, 448 42, 282, 883	27, 898, 643 6, 442, 595 5, 075, 237	16, 253, 262 77, 035, 622 54, 967, 832	31,698,762 12,062,410 10,712,463
lermany:		1 ' '	i		ı	Į.
CornbushelsWheatdo Wheat flourbarrels	15, 785 2, 652, 128 8, 240 3, 878, 433 312, 933 1,001, 252	16,500				
Wheat flourbarrels	8,240	42,841				
Lard neutral do	3,878,433	412,751				
Oleo oildo	1,001,252	2, 487, 115 42, 841 412, 751 44, 176 98, 081				
Lard pounds Lard, neutral do Oleo oil do Ongkong: Wheat flour, barrels	626,978	2,840,779	356, 263	1,620,227	61,800	306,756
	1		1		_	
Wheat bushels. Lard pounds. apan: Wheat flour barrels.	47, 122, 740 4, 123, 209 68, 542	66, 538, 785 451, 326	31,441,667	38,191,428	13,746,512	26, 743, 496 1, 058, 996
apan: Wheat flourbarrels	68,542	451,326 279,315	3, 487, 719 54, 475	38, 191, 428 390, 806 269, 609	4,981,846 4,083	1,058,998 35,652
dexico: Cornbushels	1,587,420	1,388,902	3,678,934	3,083,408	2,530,699	3,133,896
Corn bushels Wheat do	1,587,420 296,581	1,388,902 380,697	3,678,934 17,624 8,736,712	3,083,408 22,982 966,395	2,530,699 54,597	3, 133, 896 83, 558 2, 270, 025
Lardpounds Vetherlands:	3,191,515	365,024			13,261,559	
Corn. bushels. Wheat. do. Wheat flour barrels. Bacon pounds. Lard do. Lard, neutral do. Oleo oil	15, 875, 674 31, 551, 992 1, 725, 807 8, 284, 647 22, 245, 433 9, 847, 645 32, 767, 906	12, 969, 747 42, 070, 210 10, 553, 446 1, 199, 393 2, 589, 995 1, 142, 321 3, 637, 839 1, 160, 460	5, 705, 625 21, 070, 335 219, 644 12, 846, 176 13, 281, 671 9, 059, 503 29, 762, 451 14, 062, 716	4,699,487 26,224,787 1,318,349 1,632,399 1,467,341 1,152,883 3,558,180	7, 923, 706 19, 127, 675 591, 182 10, 625, 101 20, 446, 110 2, 657, 914 8, 081, 795	8, 237, 912 37, 946, 031
Wheat flourbarrels	1,725,807	10, 553, 446	219,644	1,318,349	591, 182	
Baconpounds	8, 284, 647	1,199,393	12,846,176	1,632,399	10, 625, 101	1,501,376 2,838,460 432,566 1,201,373
Lard, neutraldo	9,847,645	1, 142, 321	9,059,503	1, 152, 883	2,657,914	432,566
Oleo oildo	32,767,906	3,637,839	29, 762, 451	0,000,100	8,081,795	1,201,373
Oleo oildo Norway: Oleo oildo Philippine Islands: Wheat flourbarrels.	9,954,544	ľ		1,796,590	15,907,144	2,747,546
		1,647,098	385,371	1,989,941	76,089	420, 480
Total Kingdom: Corn.	2,850,252	2, 297, 878	5, 627, 128	4, 438, 126	24, 493, 817	27, 860, 538
Wheat flour	65, 911, 501	2,297,878 80,039,502 23,668,245	5,627,128 53,550,376 3,145,030	4,438,126 67,388,601 17,532,505	24, 493, 817 67, 982, 120 3, 015, 882	27, 860, 538 139, 429, 196 21, 935, 981
Baconpounds	201, 042, 923	28, 388, 432	339, 341, 069	1 48.740.987	3,015,882	65, 174, 365
Hams and shouldersdo	179, 376, 833	28,388,432 25,440,034	339, 341, 069 251, 025, 755	35, 899, 072 21, 640, 498	217, 434, 561	41,701,138
Oleo oildo	14,361,603	20, 650, 513 1, 734, 445 700, 078	192, 075, 591 30, 657, 569	3,684,779 1,644,441	178, 128, 614 31, 761, 124	32,620,101 5,316,644
Pork, pickleddo	6,534,240	700,078	13, 124, 077	1,644,441	6,058,672	929, 881

Table 206.—Shipments of principal domestic farm and forest products from the United States to Hawaii and Porto Rico, 1915-1917.

[These shipments are not included in the domestic exports from or imports into the United States.]

	Year ending June 30—								
Possession and article.	1915		19	16	1917				
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity	Value.			
на Жап.									
Dairy productspounds Meat products Grain and grain products Ricepounds Lumber		\$584, 141 542, 924 2, 493, 064 39, 755 1, 139, 434	191,840	\$629,825 883,174 2,322,166 7,307 1,002,976	5, 587, 968, 5, 918, 689	\$878,816 1,165,817 3,142,022 267,423 1,638,887			
PORTO RICO.	1								
Dairy products pounds. Meat products. Beans and dried peas bushels. Grain and grain products. Rice pounds. Sugar do. Tobacco do. Lumber	190, 793 127, \$10, 116 12, 329, 041	267, 491 3, 382, 875 672, 163 2, 756, 391 4, 851, 533 648, 414 178, 924 633, 747		496, 177 3, 551, 176 795, 276 2, 994, 388 5, 596, 068 612, 041 285, 041 756, 434	211, 542	652, 888 4, 311, 385 964, 072 4, 086, 369 6, 587, 122 670, 530 432, 453 1, 294, 561			

Table 207.—Shipments of principal domestic farm products from Hawaii and Porto Rico to the United States, 1915–1917.

	Year ending June 30—								
Possession and article.	191	5	1910	3	1917				
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quutity.	Value.			
нажап.									
Coffeepounds Pineapples, canned Sugarpounds		\$486,054 5,986,190 52,949,697	2, 2 52, 364 1, 137, 1 5 9, 828	\$348, 829 6, 547, 055 54, 418, 095	1,987,035 1,162,605,056	\$297, 972 7, 970, 523 62, 741, 164			
PORTO RICO.									
Grapefruit boxes. Oranges do Pineapples Molasses and sirup gallons. Sugar pounds Tobacco, leaf do.	200, 268	834, 356 278, 092 1, 723, 694 658, 661 27, 277, 839 2, 954, 804	296, 613 404, 867 16, 279, 073 849, 763, 491 6, 705, 823	836, 932 790, 667 1, 176, 319 1, 073, 786 45, 799, 299 2, 857, 036	435, 890 502, 313 18, 751, 212 977, 377, 996 7, 958, 439	939, 677 1,008, 465 916, 415 1,332, 538 53, 987, 767 3, 583, 062			

Table 208.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1914-1917.

		Quan	tity.		P	er cent	of tot	al.
Article, and country to which consigned.			Year ending	June 30—				
aspere.	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)
ANIMAL MATTER.								
Cattle: Canada United Kingdom	Number. 8,957	Number. 751	Number. 4,511 815	Number. 6,382	Per ct. 48. 7	Perct. 13.7	Perct. 21. 2 3. 8	Per ct. 47.7
Other countries	9, 419	4,733	15,961	7,005	51.3	86.3	75.0	52.8
Total Horses:	18,376	5, 484	21, 287	13,387	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Canada United Kingdom Other countries	17,700 609 4,467	42,036 92,737 154,567	82, 311 49, 412 225, 830	28, 546 100, 110 150, 018	77. 7 2. 7 19. 6	14. 5 32. 1 53. 4	23.0 13.8 63.2	10. 2 35. 9 53. 9
Total	22,776	289, 340	357, 553	278, 674	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Butter: Central American States and Brit- ish Honduras West Indies and	Pounds. 810, 254	Pounds. · 726,552	Pounds. 834, 385	Pounds. 814,396	21.9	7.4	6.2	3.0
Bermuda Other countries	1,158,111 1,725,232	1,143,822 7,980,330	1,614,695 11,038,401	1,829,040 24,191,656	31.4 46.7	11.6 81.0	12.0 81.8	6.8 90.2
Total	3,693,597	9,850,704	13, 487, 481	26, 835, 092	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Meat products: Beef products— Beef, canned— United King-								
dom Other countries	1, 157, 104 2, 307, 629	64,700,738 10,542,523	38, 206, 216 12, 598, 549	40, 257, 790 27, 318, 935	33.4 66.6	86. 0 14. 0	75. 2 24. 8	59. 6 40. 4
Total	3, 464, 733	75, 243, 261	50, 803, 765	67, 576, 725	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Beef, fresh— Panama United King-	5, 534, 391	3,706,596	1,504,583	235, 034	86.6	2. 2	.7	.1
domOther countries	860, 013	54, 497, 192 112, 237, 146	117, 409, 488 112, 299, 929	125, 687, 523 71, 258, 544	13.4	32. 0 65. 8	50. 8 48. 5	63.7 36.2
Total	6, 394, 404	170, 440, 934	231, 214, 000	197, 181, 101	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Beef, pickled, and other								
cured— Canada Germany Newfoundland	1,331,150 1,757,786	1,659,165 378,548	5, 101, 349 400	9,394,612	5.7 7.6	5.2 1.2	13.4 0.0	16.0
and Labrador West Indies and	4, 935, 657	4,331,261	5,027,163	6, 802, 524	21.2	13.6	13. 2	11.6
Bermuda United King-	3,900,281	2,697,974	3,089,623	2,613,776	16.8	8.5	8.1	4.5
dom Other countries	4,113,347 7,227,753	10,994,101 11,813,694	12, 003, 390 12, 892, 757	7, 489, 665 32, 393, 090	17. 7 31. 0	34.5 37.0	31. 5 33. 8	12. 8 55. 1
Total	23, 265, 974	31, 874, 743	38, 114, 682	58, 693, 667	100.0	100.0	100. 0	100.0
Oleo oil— Germany Netherlands Norway	16, 180, 268 47, 414, 421 7, 285, 043	1,001,252 32,767,906 9,954,544	29, 762, 451 14, 062, 716	8, 081, 795 15, 907, 144	16. 7 48. 9 7. 5	1. 2 40. 7 12. 4	29. 0 13. 7	12. 0 23. 7
United King- dom Other countries	9, 243, 952 16, 893, 381	14,361,603 22,396,641	30, 657, 569 28, 163, 178	31,761,124 11,363,358	9. 5 17. 4	17.8 27.9	29.9 27.4	47.3 17.0
Total	97, 017, 065	80, 481, 946	102, 645, 914	67, 113, 421	100. 0	100.0	100. 0	100.0
Lard compounds— Cuba Mexico	14, 673, 201 3, 119, 285	19, 046, 472 3, 772, 943	11, 895, 200 4, 597, 585	14, 164, 676 6, 863, 487	25. 2 5. 4	27. 2 5. 4	22. 5 8. 7	25. 2 12. 2
United King- dom Other countries.	19, 929, 949 20, 581, 129	26, 357, 467 20, 803, 732	18, 486, 477 17, 864, 049	13, 407, 936 21, 843, 294	34.2 35.2	37.7 29.7	35. 0 33. 8	23. 8 38. 8
Total	58, 303, 564	69, 980, 614	52, 843, 311	56, 279, 393	!	100.0	100.0	100, 0
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TABLE 208.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1914-1917.—Continued.

		Quan	ntity.		P	er cent	of tota	
Article, and coun- try to which con-			Year ending	June 36—	!			
signed.	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)
ANIMAL MAT- TER—con.								
Meat products—Con. Pork products— Bacon— Belgium	Pounds. 5, 110, 170 11, 082, 930 13, 733, 773 197, 353 1, 718, 481	Pounds. 5, 737, 181 10, 025, 242 13, 360, 139 44, 712, 253 8, 284, 647	Pounds. 60, 160, 749 30, 590, 591 13, 543, 082 52, 501, 448 12, 846, 176	Pounds. 65, 219, 598 118, 700, 847 14, 914, 902 77, 035, 622 10, 625, 101	Peret. 2.6 5.7 7.1 .1	Parat. 1.7 2.9 3.9 12.9 2.4	Peret. 10.4 6.8 2.3 9.1 2.2	Per ct. 9.8 17.8 2.3 11.5 1.6
United King- dom Other countries	132, 819, 680 29, 301, 865	201, 042, 923 63, 555, 842	339, 341, 069 61, 825, 671	346,684,804 33,966,187	68. 5 15. 1	58. 0 18. 2	58.5 10.7	52.0 5.1
Total	193, 964, 252	346, 718, 227	579, 868, 786	667, 156, 961	100.0	100. 0	100. 0	100.0
Hams and shoulders, cured— Belgium————————————————————————————————————	4, 080, 669 4, 006, 649 5, 637, 829	6, 596, 068 1, 514, 602 6, 842, 425	2, 792, 605 2, 673, 658 11, 493, 464	5,616,090 9,867,826	2.5 2.4 3.4	3. 2 . 7 3. 4	1.0 .9 4.1	2.1 3.7
dom Other countries	146, 007, 141 6, 149, 503	179, 376, 833 9, 371, 186	251, 025, 755 14, 223, 129	217, 434, 561 33, 737, 104	88.0 3.7	88. 1 4. 6	89.0 5.0	81.5 12.7
Total	165,881,791	203, 701, 114	282, 208, 611	266, 655, 581	100. 0	100. 0	100.0	100.0
Lard— BelgiumCanadaCubaFranceGermanyItaly	15, 915, 380 15, 995, 669 49, 609, 751 5, 307, 986 146, 208, 598 5, 958, 983	5, 128, 630 7, 721, 616 45, 349, 283 32, 172, 876 3, 878, 433 4, 123, 209	70, 132, 156 6, 330, 140 53, 811, 784 42, 282, 883	96, 761, 185 5, 375, 768 48, 732, 924 54, 967, 832	3.3 3.3 10.3 1.1 30.4 1.2	1.1 1.6 9.5 6.8 .8	16. 4 1. 5 12. 6 9. 9	21.8 1.2 11.0 12.4
Mexico Netherlands United King-	3, 294, 437 43, 469, 536	3, 191, 515 22, 245, 433	3,487,719 8,736,712 13,281,671	4,981,846 13,261,559 20,446,110	9.0	4.7	2.0 3.1	3.0 4.6
dom Other countries	164, 632, 676 31, 064, 776	189,349,874 162,371,039	192, 075, 591 36, 872, 682	178, 128, 614 22, 131, 683	34.2 6.5	39.8 34.1	45.0 8.7	40.0 4.9
Total	481, 457, 792	475, 531, 908	427,011,338	444,787,521	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Lard, neutral— Germany Netherlands Other countries	6,309,792 13,174,294 9,839,700	312, 933 9, 847, 645 15, 860, 476	9, 059, 503 25, 367, 087	2,657,914 14,890,345	21. 5 44. 9 83. 6	1. 2 37. 8 61. 0	26.3 73.7	15. 1 84. 9
Total Pork, pickled—	29, 323, 786	26,021,054	34, 426, 590	17,548,259	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Canada Cuba Newfoundland	12,825,741 4,090,780	8,500,049 3,874,892	17, 835, 273 7, 846, 918	16, 929, 411 7, 700, 42 1	28. 2 9. 0	18. 6 8. 5	28.1 12.4	36. 0 16. 4
and Labrador United King-	7,911,743	5, 244, 462	7, 070, 090	6, 262, 085	17.4	11.5	11.1	13. 3
domOther countries	5, 571, 720 15, 143, 101	6,534,240 21,501,931	13, 124, 077 17, 584, 355	6,058,672 10,051,032	12. 2 33. 2	14.3 47.1	20.7 27.7	12.9 21.4
Total	45, 543, 085	45, 655, 574	63, 460, 718	47, 601, 621	100.0	1 00 . 0	100.0	100.0
Cotton: Austria-Hungary Belgium. Canada France Germany Italy Japan Mexico Russia, European Span United Kingdom	268, 678, 515 176, 720, 027 17, 335, 397 49, 538, 075 148, 669, 641	227, 378 2, 528, 388 91, 385, 682 346, 349, 629 147, 086, 823 563, 700, 142 214, 403, 082 19, 863, 621 41, 062, 654 232, 251, 960	98, 829, 599 445, 187, 759 418, 457, 552 251, 538, 465 11, 847, 741 86, 724, 722 170, 122, 980 1, 380, 444, 961	93, 600, 458 527, 864, 661 343, 579, 007 265, 446, 488 2, 648, 967 24, 594, 286 197, 946, 594 1,447,707,351	1.1 2.4 1.6 12.0 20.2 5.6 3.7 1.0 3.1	2.1 7.9 8.3 12.8 4.9 5.3 44.5	3.2 14.4 13.6 8.4 2.8 5.5 44.8	3. 0 17. 1 11. 1 8. 6 . 1 . 8 6. 4
Other countries	54, 898, 581 4, 760, 940, 538	784, 825, 141	220,910,340	185, 579, 405 3,088,067,205	1.2	17. 7	7. 1 100. 0	6.0 - 100.0

Table 208.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1914-1917.—Continued.

		Quan	tity.		P	er cent	of tota	al.
Article, and country to which consigned.			Year ending	June 30—				-
signed.	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)
VEGETABLE MATTER— continued.								
Fruits: Apples, dried— Germany Netherlands Other countries	Pounds. 17, 645, 697 9, 147, 104 6, 773, 359	Pounds. 108, 434 5, 200, 178 37, 280, 557	Pounds. 1,878,251 14,340,923	Pounds. 187, 286 10, 343, 188	52. 6 27. 3 20. 1	12. 2 87. 5	11.6 88.4	1. 8 98. 2
Total	33, 566, 160	42, 589, 169	16, 219, 174	10, 530, 474	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Apples, fresh-	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.				
Germany United Kingdom. Other countries	168, 792 827, 028 510, 749	1,747,396 604,105	874,587 591,734	1,147,412 592,585	11. 2 54. 9 33. 9	74. 3 25. 7	59. 6 40. 4	65. 9 34. 1
Total	1,506,569	2,351,501	1,466,321	1,739,997	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Apricots, dried— France	Pounds. 3,074,146 3,841,032 2,064,471 4,473,534	Pounds. 1,911,296 289,850 1,285,632 9,017,358	Pounds. 2,570,491 2,526,953 5,783,717	Pounds. 5,754,643 345,031 614,139	17. 7 22. 1 11. 9 25. 7	8.0 1.2 5.4 37.9	10. 7 10. 6 24. 2	58. 5 3. 5 - 6. 2
Other countries	3,948,509	11,260,206	13,058,629	3,129,906	22. 6	47.5	54.5	31.8
Total	17,401,692	23,764,342	23,939,790	9,843,719	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Oranges— Canada Other countries	Boxes. 1,491,539 67,382	Boxes. 1,682,824 76,581	Boxes. 1,489,746 85,296	Bores. 1,725,432 125,260	95. 7 4. 3	95. 6 4. 4	94.6 5.4	93. 2 6. 8
Total	1,558,921	1,759,405	1,575,042	1,850,692	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Prunes— Canada France. Germany	Pounds. 12,757,585 13,514,086 17,417,865	Pounds. 9,321,355 1,129,323 1,100 10,368,576	Pounds. 11,857,965 4,869,201	Pounds. 11,112,227 23,852,707	18.3 19.4 24.9	21. 4 2. 6 0. 0	20. 7 8. 5	18.6 40.0
United Kingdom. Other countries	11, 175, 968 14, 948, 207	22,658,538	14,967,084 25,728,577	10, 765, 070 13, 915, 137	16.0 21.4	23. 8 52. 2	26. 1 44. 7	18.0 23.4
Total	69, 813, 711	43, 478, 892	57, 422, 827	59, 645, 141	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Fruits, canned— United Kingdom. Other countries	Dollars. 3, 182, 051 1, 681, 895	Dollars. 4,924,824 1,139,941	Dollars. 5,284,344 1,765,717	Dollars. 3,627,823 2,509,872	65. 4 34. 6	81. 2 18. 8	75. 0 25. 0	59. 1 40. 9
Total	4,863,946	6,064,765	7,050,061	6, 137, 695	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Glucose and grape sugar: United Kingdom Other countries	Pounds. 162, 715, 262 36, 815, 612	Pounds. 131,751,252 26,711,256	Pounds. 145, 862, 104 40, 544, 078	Pounds. 160,716,035 54,307,280	81. 5 18. 5	83. 1 16. 9	78. 2 21. 8	74. 7 25. 3
Total	199, 530, 874	158, 462, 508	186, 406, 182	215,023,315	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Grain and grain products: Corn— Belgium Canada Cuba Denmark Germany Mexico. Netherlands United Kingdom. Other countries.	Bushels. 60, 227 4, 641, 737 2, 410, 156 303, 303 467, 424 373, 770 540, 515 583, 605	Bushels. 103, 927 8, 283, 156 2, 267, 305 11, 169, 550 15, 787, 420 15, 875, 674 2, 850, 252 6, 633, 222	Bushels. 4,550 6,568,407 3,231,323 9,527,032 3,678,934 5,705,625 5,627,128 3,874,013	Bushels. 581, 371 15, 724, 738 2, 819, 278 7, 075, 254 2, 530, 699 7, 922, 706 24, 493, 817 3, 571, 879	0.6 49.5 25.7 3.2 5.0 4.0 5.8 6.2	0.2 17.0 4.6 22.9	17. 2 8. 5 24. 9 9. 6 14. 9 14. 7 10. 2	3.9 24.3 4.4 10.9 12.2 37.8 5.6
Total	9, 380, 855	48, 786, 291	38,217,012	64,720,742	100. 0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wheat— Belgium	12, 873, 372 4, 113, 701 5, 536, 731 10, 983, 060 1, 839, 830	5, 320, 685 19, 664, 674 49, 878, 655 2, 652, 128	2,682,919 6,244,732 21,802,818	2,698,044 4,714,836 16,253,262	13. 9 4. 5 6. 0 11. 9	2.0 7.6 19.2 1.0 18.1	1.5 3.6 12.6	1.8 3.1 10.8

Table 208.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1914-1917—Continued.

		Quar	ntity.		P	er cent	t of tot	al.
Article, and country to which consigned.			Year ending	June 30—				
signou.	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)
VEGETABLE MATTER— continued.								
Grain and grain prod- ucts—Continued. Wheat—Contd. Mexico Netherlands United Kingdom Other countries	Bushels. 306, 376 19, 949, 519 27, 961, 348 8, 829, 838	Bushels. 296, 581 31, 551, 992 65, 911, 501 87, 243, 577	Bushels. 17,624 21,070,335 53,550,376 36,463,544	Bushels. 54,597 19,127,675 67,982,120 25,260,381	.3 21.6 30.3 9.5	.1 12.2 25.4 14.4	12. 2 30. 9 21. 1	12.8 45.4 16.9
Total	92, 393, 775	259, 642, 533	173, 274, 015	149, 837, 427	100. 0	100. 0	100.0	100.0
Wheat flour— Brazil	Barrels. 748, 612 122, 752 136, 374 892, 705 429, 354 176, 485	Barrels. 707, 705 110, 938 13, 273 924, 989 35, 588 8, 240	Barrels. 734, 726 50, 424 10, 762 1, 124, 562	Barrels. 301, 614 77, 115 9, 806 1, 016, 675	6.3 1.0 1.2 7.6 3.6 1.5	4.8 .7 .1 5.7 .2 .1	4.7 .8 .1 7.2	2.5 .6 .1 8.5
Haiti. Hongkong Japan Netherlands Philippine Is- lands	208, 266 1, 141, 095 793, 269 958, 063 236, 902	112,620 626,978 68,542 1,725,807 303,792	221, 455 356, 263 54, 475 219, 644 385, 371	127, 458 61, 800 4, 083 591, 182 76, 089	1.8 9.7 6.7 8.1 2.0	3.9 .4 10.7	1.4 2.3 .4 1.4 2.5	1. 1 . 5 5. 0
United Kingdom. Other countries	2,809,800 3,167,784	4,156,097 7,388,196	3,145,030 9,217,957	3,015,882 6,660,801	23. 8 26. 7	25. 7 45. 6	20. 3 59. 4	25. 3 55. 8
Total	11,821,461	16, 182, 765	15,520,669	11,942,505	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Hops: Canada United Kingdom Other countries	Pounds. 1,214,028 22,219,620 829,248	Pounds. 1,071,601 13,823,889 1,314,953	Pounds. 626, 126 19, 703, 283 2, 080, 409	Pounds. 801, 162 823, 654 3, 250, 060	5. 0 91. 6 3. 4	6. 6 85. 3 8. 1	2.8 87.9 9.3	16. 4 16. 9 66. 7
Total Oil cake and oil-cake meal: Cottonseed—	24, 262, 896	16,210,443	22,409,818	4, 874, 876	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Belgium. Denmark Germany. Netherlands. United Kingdom. Other countries.	19, 685, 564 347, 584, 172 240, 348, 664 22, 310, 420 131, 292, 496 38, 752, 936	223,100 1,067,161,664 6,819,250 15,469,040 173,948,786 215,443,175	812,720,685 4,818,400 106,360,887 134,321,597	673, 151, 482 23, 231, 880 218, 200, 451 235, 575, 878	2.5 43.4 30.0 2.8 16.4 4.9	72. 2 .5 1. 0 11. 8 14. 5	76. 9 . 5 10. 0 12. 6	58. 5 2. 0 19. 0 20. 5
TotalLinseed or flax-	799, 974, 252	1,479,065,015	1,057,221,569	1,150,159,691	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100.0
seed— Belgium	332,697,680 20,671,619 266,792,954 29,084,892 13,621,494	26, 931, 718 1, 375, 773 431, 248, 843 22, 829, 656 42, 408, 444	13, 100 445, 707, 867 25, 532, 292 169, 662, 937	4, 408, 251 292, 984, 477 86, 400, 787 153, 182, 904	50. 2 3. 1 40. 2 4. 4 2. 1	5. 1 .3 82. 2 4. 4 8. 0	69. 5 4. 0 26. 5	. 8 54. 6 16. 1 28. 5
Total Oils, vegetable:	662, 868, 639	524, 794, 434	640, 916, 196	536, 976, 419	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100.0
Cottonseed— Argentina Austria-Hungary. Belgium Canada. France Germany. Italy. Mexico.	14, 989, 927 4, 211, 198 3, 452, 229 25, 493, 039 8, 268, 808 7, 682, 622 14, 015, 326 6, 219, 064	17, 314, 259 70, 394 11, 646 20, 578, 973 8, 425, 210 62, 871 15, 782, 234 4, 821, 390 90, 979, 466 26, 442, 259 354, 910 84, 378, 878	9,275,577 35,420,571 33,500,328 9,424,790 2,674,740	2, 863, 997 40, 907, 725 3, 321, 730 229, 267 996, 500	7.8 2.2 1.8 13.2 4.3 4.0 7.3 3.2	5. 4 6. 5 2. 6 5. 0 1. 5	3. 5 13. 3 12. 6 3. 5 1. 0	1. 8 25. 7 2. 1
Netherlands Norway. Turkey, European United Kingdom. Other countries	26, 994, 772 6, 985, 490 4, 947, 994 31, 071, 865 38, 630, 745	90, 979, 466 26, 442, 259 354, 910 84, 378, 878 49, 144, 035	9, 424, 790 2, 674, 740 56, 981, 676 31, 055, 628 32, 112, 143 56, 066, 604	229, 267 926, 809 28, 034, 879 33, 591, 436 14, 172, 497 34, 937, 302	14. 0 3. 6 2. 6 16. 1 19. 9	28.6 8.2 .1 26.5 15.6	21. 4 11. 7 12. 0 21. 0	17.6
Total	192,963,079	318, 366, 525	266, 512, 057		!	100, 0	100.0	(10 0. 0
						-	-	

Table 208.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1914-1917.—Continued.

		Quan	tity.		P	er cent	of tot	al.		
Article, and country to which consigned.	Year ending June 30—									
	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)		
VESETABLE MATTER—continued.										
Tobacco, leaf, stems, and trimmings: Belgium. British Africa. British Oceania. Canada. China. France. Germany. Italy. Japan. Netherlands.	Pounds. 11, 677, 604 6, 600, 312 13, 186, (80 17, 688, 562 11, 445, 697 54, 915, 178 32, 057, 051 45, 190, 196 3, 696, 273	Pounds. 1, 131, 439 4, 655, 691 9, 042, 967 16, 156, 268 3, 478, 041 37, 710, 975 10, 018, 503 24, 279, 246 3, 110, 565	Pounds. 7, 820, 355 9, 759, 812 18, 621, 186 8, 908, 844 82, 977, 894 41, 000, 738 1, 158, 083 56, 928, 308	Pounds. 10, 410, 254 15, 527, 467 15, 275, 422 9, 887, 842 70, 514, 607 45, 587, 226 3, 449, 974	Perct. 2.6 1.5 2.9 3.9 2.5 12.2 7.1 10.0 .8 6.3	Peret3 1.3 2.6 4.6 1.0 10.8 2.9 7.0 .9 6.1	Perct. 1.8 2.2 4.2 2.0 18.7 9.2 .3 12.8	Perct. 2. 8 3. 8 3. 7 2. 9 11. 1		
Spain	28, 233, 746 16, 822, 696 174, 779, 326 33, 455, 862	21, 223, 143 7, 030 189, 345, 349 28, 186, 284	9, 779, 100 150, 639, 054 55, 699, 784	55, 128, 317 10, 692, 009 122, 725, 357 52, 399, 941	3. 7 38. 9 7. 6	0.0 54 4 8.1	2.2 34.0 12.6	2. 6 29. 8 12. 8		
Total	449, 749, 982	348, 346, 091	443,293,156	411, 598, 416	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100.0		
POREST PRODUCTS.										
Naval stores: Rosin— Argentina Austria-Hungary. Belgium Brazii. Canada. Germany. Italy Notherlands. Russia, European. United Kingdom. Other countries. Total.	Barrels. 102,028 66,257 111,735 99,632 77,004 796,757 109,380 247,339 144,633 504,400 158,705	80,267 105,529 74,113 53,331 94,217 48,883 5,447 500,545 266,577	Barrels. 97,308 132,545 120,146 117,740 18,175 70,537 557,611 457,219	Barrels. 120, 287 147, 462 172, 578 54, 927 720 74, 080 668, 893 395, 483 1, 634, 430	4. 2 2. 7 4. 6 4. 1 3. 2 33. 0 4. 5 10. 2 6. 0 20. 9 6. 6	10. 4 5. 8 7. 7 5. 4 3. 9 6. 9 3. 6 4 36. 5 19. 4	6. 2 8. 4 7. 6 7. 5 1. 2 4. 5 35. 5 29. 1 100. 0	7. 4 9. (10. 6 0. (4. 8 40. 6 24. 2		
Turpentine, spirits of— Belgium. British Oceanis Canada. Germany. Notherlands United Kingdom. Other countries	Gallons. 1,027,355 499,248 1,114,863 3,275,929 4,393,902 7,109,851 1,479,556	Gallons. 113, 672 708, 843 917, 912 196, 622 625, 736 5, 338, 724 1, 562, 611	Gallons. 590, 760 1,026, 768 442, 682 5,561, 957 1, 688, 101	Gallons. 753, 637 1,098, 126 66, 892 5, 330, 100 1, 585, 217	5. 4 2. 7 5. 9 17. 3 23. 2 37. 6 7. 9	1. 2 7. 5 9. 7 2. 1 6. 6 56. 4 16. 5	6.3 11.0 4.8 59.7 18.2	8. 8 12. 4 60. 3		
Total	18, 900, 704	9, 464, 120	9,310,268	8,833,972	100 0	100. 0	100. 0	100.0		
Wood: Lumber— Boards, deals, planks, joists, and scant- ling— Argentina. Belgium. Brazil. British Oceania Canada. Central American States and British	Mft. 208, 177 62, 772 38, 125 283, 009 434, 399	Mft. 66, 754 8, 793 10, 370 187, 439 182, 734	Mft. 86, 896 8, 116 150, 717 140, 715	M/t. 44,533 3,341 101,961 182,630	8.6 2.6 1.6 12.1 18.0	5.9 .8 .9 16.5 16.1	7.4 .7 12.8 12.0	4. 3 9. 8 17. 8		
and British Honduras China Cubs France Germany Italy Mexico. Netherlands	81,251 107,115 122,938 39,563 69,852 53,623 69,111 120,661	45,777 56,238 88,000 6,145 7,963 20,662 31,296 17,218	49, 357 30, 746 174, 676 12, 722 40, 831 45, 626 3, 039	58, 752 21, 354 172, 292 25, 892 11, 355 46, 840 98	3.4 4.4 5.1 1.6 2.9 2.2 2.9 5.0	4.0 5.0 7.8 .5 .7 1.8 2.8 1.5	4.2 2.6 14.8 1.1 3.5 3.9	5. 6 2. 0 16. 8 2. 8 1. 1 4. 8		

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Table 208.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1914-1917.—Continued.

		Quan	tity.		P	er cent	of tot	al.	
Article, and country to which consigned.	Year ending June 30								
,	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	
FOREST PRODUCTS.									
Wood—Continued. Lumber—Contd. Boards, etc.— Continued. Philippine Islands. United Kingdom. Other countries	M. /t. 22, 485 332, 457 361, 901	M. ft. 6,623 260,098 139,082	M. ft. 4,833 275,961 153,097	M. ft. 1,987 140,230 233,734	Perct 9	Perct. .6 22.9 12.2	Perct4 23.4 12.9	Per ct 2 13. 4 22. 3	
Total	2,417,439	1, 135, 212	1,177,331	1, 044, 999	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100.0	
Timber, hewn and sawed— Canada. France. Germany. Italy. Netherlands. United Kingdom. Other countries Total.	37, 846 32, 047 17, 506 65, 314 57, 776 186, 906 43, 771 441, 166	15, 382 6, 192 2, 337 25, 763 6, 733 99, 318 18, 064	12, 812 2, 859 29, 946 9, 964 117, 221 28, 403 201, 205	10, 069 14, 892 17, 684 1, 961 89, 714 50, 369	8.6 7.3 4.0 14.8 13.1 42.4 9.8	8.9 3.6 1.3 14 8 3.9 57.1 10.4	6.4 1.4 14.9 5.0 58.3 14.0	5. 5 8. 1 9. 6 1. 1 48. 6 27. 1	

Table 209.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1914-1917.

		Quan	itity.		P	er cent	of tota	1.	
Article, and country to which consigned.	Year ending June 30—								
	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	
ANIMAL MATTER.									
Cattle: Mexico Other countries	Number. 625, 253 243, 115	Number. 343, 809 194, 358	Number. 197, 788 241, 397	Number. 183, 827 190, 909	Per et. 72. 0 28. 0	Per ct. 64. 2 35. 8	Per ct. 45. 0 55. 0	Per el. 49.0 51.0	
Total	868, 368	538, 167	439, 185	374,826	100. G	100. 0	100.0	100.0	
Horses: Canada France Other countries	4,435 1,171 27,413	3, 515 235 8, 902	6,250 110 9,196	6,348 170 6,066	13. 4 3. 5 83. 1	27. 8 1. 8 70. 4	40. 2 .7 50. 1	50.4 1.4 48.2	
Total	33,019	12,652	15, 556	12,584	100. 0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Dairy products: Cheese, including substitutes— France	Pounds. 5, 418, 904 26, 453, 826 22, 490, 006 9, 421, 577	Pounds. 3, 554, 297 25, 662, 362 14, 766, 682 6, 155, 179	Pounds. 2, 321, 543 16, 084, 058 9, 514, 008 2, 168, 390	Pounds. 1,937,341 8,482,290 1,640,656 2,421,227	8. 5 41. 5 35. 3 14. 7	7. 1 51. 2 29. 5 12. 2	7.7 53.5 31.6 7.2	13.4 58.6 11.3 16.7	
Total	63, 784, 313	50, 138, 520	30, 087, 999	14, 481, 514	100.0	100. 0	100.0	100.0	
Fibers, animal: Silk, raw— China Italy Japan Other countries	5, 926, 745 1, 907, 428 20, 196, 212 474, 287	5, 097, 169 2, 610, 570 18, 217, 083 106, 103	7, 419, 616 2, 545, 845 22, 914, 898 190, 543	7,006,700 467,405 26,341,833 52,947	20. 7 7. 0 70. 6 1. 7	19. 6 10. 0 70. 0	22. 4 7. 7 69. 3 . 6	20.7 1.4 77.8	
Total	28, 594, 672	28, 030, 925	33,070,902	33,8 8,885z	100.0	100.0	100, 0	100.0	

Table 209.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1914–1917—Continued.

		Quan	tity.		F	er cen	t of tot	al.
Article, and country to which consigned.	T		Year ending	June 30—				
agnot.	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)
ANIMAL MATTER—COIL								
Fibers, animal—Continued.								
Wool, class 1— Argentina	Pounds. 30, 959, 660	Pounds. 65, 373, 017	Pounds. 110, 085, 992	Pounds. 187, 078, 443	Perct. 24.8	Percl. 20.4	Perd. 27.3	Per ct. 66.8
Argentina Australia, Com- monwealth of.	23,757,714	66,063,841	157, 433, 859	802,618	19.0	29.8	39.1	.:
Belgium	28, 757, 714 4, 581, 419 4, 710, 748 45, 223, 714 7, 972, 159	68, 063, 841 3, 002, 967 413, 679 38, 897, 503		262, 352	3.7	1.4	[I
New Zealand United Kingdom.	45, 223, 714	38.897.503	16,697,578 30,188,711	1,565,182	3. 8 36. 2	17.5	7.4	
Uruguay Other countries	7, 972, 159 7, 883, 34/	14,612,708 33,653,710	8,941,506 79,773,939	1,555,182 33,304,462 56,478,444	6.4 6.1	6. 6 15. 1	2.2 19.9	11.1 20.
Total	125, 088, 761	222,017,420	408, 121, 585	279, 481, 501	100.0	100. 0	100.0	100.0
Wool, class 2-								
Canada United Kingdom. Other countries	4,542,139 12,301,661 1,995,898	5,094,660 8,607,633 1,352,396	4,135,963 4,126,027	7, 883, 007 56, 400 9, 116, 546	24.1 65.3 10.6	33.8 57.2 9.0	37.1 31.1 31.8	46. 2 53. 5
Total	18,839,698	15, 054, 694	13, 292, 160	17,055,953	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wool, class 3— Argentina British East In-	5, 452, 526	10,509,249	14,670,272	15, 075, 173	5.3	16.0	13.4	22.8
dies	2, 788, 130	859, 121	3,025,191	423,661	2.7	1.3	2.8	٠
China	29, 884, 054	35, 455, 392	44, 192, 310	25, 448, 769	29.3	54.0	40.4	37.0
Russia (Asiatic and European).	22, 627, 514	2, 273, 360	3, 209, 328		22. 2	3.5	3.0	
Turkey (Asiatic). United Kingdom.	5, 350, 091 22, 105, 267	2,486,957 10,233,744	42,560 25,969,190	2, 795, 512	5. 2 21. 7	3.8 15.6	23.8	4. 1
Other countries	13, 795, 731	3,891,929	18, 100, 148	23, 924, 556	13.6	5.8	16.6	35.4
Total	102, 003, 313	65, 709, 752	109, 268, 999	67, 672, 671	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Packing-house prod- uc.s:			ĺ			ŀ		
Hides and skins, other than furs—			-	ŀ			İ	
Calf skins— Belgium	5, 157, 640	978, 751			6.3	2.1	l	
Canada	5,734,207	4,441,310	4,612,406	2, 752, 316	7.0	9.7	7.2	5.1
France Germany	5, 800, 673 16, 560, 316	7,406,904 2,613,289	7,994,908	2, 437, 902	7.0 20.1	16. 1 5. 7	12.5	5.3
Netherlands Russia (Euro-	12, 006, 926	4,152,980	8,750,387	1, 995, 942	14.6	9.0	13.6	4.3
pean) Other countries	19, 747, 462 17, 396, 366	1,471,713 24,901,754	42,777,792	39, 150, 035	24.0 21.0	3. 2 54. 2	66.7	84.
Total	82, 403, 590	45, 966, 701	64, 135, 493	46, 336, 195	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Cattle hides— Argentina	79, 787, 332	113, 366, 344	149, 537, 519	118, 987, 425	28.5	33.9	34.4	30.8
Belgium	7, 313, 906	3, 416, 605			2.6 1.2	1.0		
Brazil Canada	3, 259, 873 46, 588, 543	23, 223, 310 33, 394, 506	59,362,639 27,217,476	49, 918, 402 23, 240, 504	16.6	10.0	13.7	12.9
Colombia	3,005,244	8,394,503	27, 217, 476 10, 736, 678	23, 240, 504 15, 340, 041 13, 487, 275 15, 759, 758	1.8 2.0	2.5	2.5 3.7	4.6
Cuba East Indies	5, 528, 502 4, 474, 768	15, 26 0, 111 5, 70 6, 63 8	16, 068, 265 19, 388, 264	15, 759, 758	1.6	1.7	4.5	8.4
France	19, 036, 552	7,961,693	2, 885, 199	520, 894	6.8	2.4	.7	.1
Germany Italy	1,957,552	3, 125, 982	004	219, 402	1.8	1.3		
Mexico	33, 194, 289	3, 125, 982 43, 384, 173	42,895,513	219, 402 34, 137, 722 5, 029, 905	TT-A	13.0	9.9 1.0	8.8 1 1.3
Netherlands Russia (Euro-	4, 099, 899	2,870,004	4, 214, 621	U, VAR, 800	1.5	.9	1.0	'''
pean) United King-	9, 043, 103	698, 102	 	·····	3.2	.2		······
dom	11, 204, 957	6,514,409 21,809,611	6,578,567	3, 509, 065 38, 138, 800	4.0	1.9	1.5	. 9
Uruguay Venesuela	11, 204, 957 13, 403, 443 5, 149, 398	21,809,611 7,033,582	6,578,567 43,497,431 7,530,524 44,264,421	38, 138, 800 8, 053, 116	1.8	6.5	10.0	9.9 2.1
Other countries	25, 823, 332	37, 346, 432	44, 264, 421	8, 053, 116 60, 257, 719	9. 2	10.9	10. 1	15.

Table 209.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1914–1917.—Continued.

		Quan	tity.		1	'er cen	t of tota	al.
Article, and country to which consigned.		0-	Year ending	June 30				
	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)
ANIMAL MATTER—con.							-	
Packing-house prod- ucts—Continued.								
Hides and skins, other than fur.								
Goatskins— Aden Africa Argentina Brazil China East Indies France Mexico	Pounds. 3, 595, 909 2, 817, 948 3, 470, 013 4, 191, 124 7, 304, 761 35, 831, 857 2, 171, 224 4, 010, 150	Pounds. 2, 291, 012 1, 440, 984 3, 738, 020 4, 260, 495 7, 897, 387 28, 651, 497 1, 891, 445 3, 507, 940	Pounds. 4, 151, 509 6, 913, 422 6, 337, 138 6, 919, 497 15. 084, 600 40, 877, 117 971, 848 3, 833, 616	Pounds. 3, 499, 925 7, 001, 130 5, 566, 223 4, 601, 848 21, 340, 353 46, 196, 646 1, 046, 413 4, 642, 396	Per ct. 4.2 3.3 4.1 4.9 8.6 42.3 2.6 4.7	Perct. 3.4 2.2 5.6 6.4 11.9 43.1 2.8 5.3	Peret 4.1 6.9 6.3 6.9 15.0 40.6 1.0 3.8	Per ct. 3.3 6.6 5.3 4.4 20.2 43.7 1.0
Russia (Euro- pean)	5, 131, 075	1,556,154		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	6.1	2.3		
United King- dom Other countries	5, 281, 468 10, 953, 899	4,089,212 7,223,017	5, 936, 113 9, 632, 161	2, 181, 600 9, 563, 773	6. 2 13. 0	6. 1 10. 9	5.9 9.5	2.1 9.6
Total	84, 759, 428	66, 547, 163	100, 657, 021	105, 640, 307	100. 0	100.0	100. 0	100.0
Sheepskins— Argentina	3, 874, 944 1, 582, 333 9, 848, 498 3, 678, 117 2, 221, 769	8, 689, 826 1, 384, 888 11, 007, 719 4, 102, 461 823, 209	13, 308, 025 3, 257, 445 14, 653, 153 3, 105, 951 2, 089, 161	22, 698, 632 2, 326, 475 3, 630, 411 2, 699, 873 1, 362, 709	5. 5 2. 3 14. 1 5. 2 3. 2	14.8 2.4 18.7 7.0 1.4	18. 1 3. 2 14. 4 3. 1 2. 1	23.7 2.4 3.8 2.8 1.4
Russia (Euro- pean) United King-	9, 158, 287	826,898	22,840		13. 1	1.4	0.0	
domOther countries	26, 384, 892 13, 327, 985	22,616,881 9,267,656	33, 287, 127 31, 735, 579	17, 148, 994 45, 863, 504	37.7 18.9	38.5 15.8	32.8 31.3	17.9 48.0
Total	70, 076, 825	58,719,538	101, 459, 281	95, 730, 598	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
VEGETABLE MATTER.								
Cocoa, crude: Brazil British West Indies Dominican Re-	25, 870, 186 44, 062, 426	19,708,616 40,728,851	45,657,401 39,933,405	51,461,624 54,203,374	14.7 25.0	10. 2 21. 2	18.8 16.4	15.2 16.0
public	26, 782, 966 26, 319, 735 17, 738, 638 12, 903, 640 22, 590, 055	46,620,464 33,418,752 3,516,655 21,062,767 27,250,529	48,990,707 31,913,350 7,531,924 13,408,058 55,797,094	61,443,869 67,227,698 16,191,624 11,650,811 76,474,876	15. 2 14. 9 10. 1 7. 3 12. 8	24. 2 17. 4 1. 8 11. 0 14. 2	20.1 13.1 3.1 5.5 23.0	18.1 19.9 4.8 2.4 22.6
Total	176,267,646	192, 306, 634	243, 231, 939	338, 653, 876	100. 0	100. 0	100.0	100.0
Coffee: Brazil. Central American	743, 113, 500	773, 400, 315	849, 405, 925	907, 237, 562	74. 2	69. 1	70.7	68.7
States and British Honduras. Colombia. East Indies. Mexico. Netherlands. Venezuela. West Indies and	40, 202, 480 91, 830, 513 8, 673, 941 49, 385, 504 5, 811, 934 49, 953, 478	75,350,258 111,077,449 11,354,631 52,706,120 1,583,672 72,463,140	95, 565, 305 109, 363, 456 6, 258, 733 49, 532, 801 50, 896 73, 405, 301	127, 059, 741 150, 591, 659 4, 024, 243 54, 908, 223 150, 000 58, 050, 584	4.0 9.2 .7 4.9 .6 5.0	6.7 9.9 1.0 4.7 .1 6.5	8.0 9.1 .5 4.1 0.0 6.1	9.6 11.4 .3 4.2 .0
Bermuda Other countries	4,711,269 7,845,698	16,230,552 4,524,387	10,832,182 6,389,886	8,463,883 9,384,907	.5	1.4	.9	.6 .8
Total		1, 118, 690, 524	1,201,104,485	1,319,870,802	100.0		100.0	100.0
Fibers, vegetable: Cotton— Egypt Peru United Kingdom.	63, 668, 055 6, 455, 946	117, 596, 646 5, 262, 394 3, 417, 851	171, 528, 669 4, 934, 448 14, 227, 785	88, 772, 585 5, 885, 836 13, 817, 744	51.6 5.2 2.1	63. 5 2. 8 1. 8	73.7 2.1 6.1	60.4 4.0 9.4
Other countries	50, 665, 857	58, 927, 688	42, 110, 160	38, 585, 470	41.1	31.9	18.1	26.3
Total	123,346,899	185, 204, 579	232, 801, 062	147,061,635	100. 0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 200.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1914–1917—Continued.

		Quant	ity.		F	er cen	t of tota	
Article, and country to which consigned.			Year ending	June 30—				
	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)
VEGETABLE MATTER— continued.								
Fibers, vegetable— Continued. Flax— Belgium Russia, European. United Kingdom. Other countries.	Long tons. 1,266 2,735 5,076 808	Long tons. 122 336 3,767 469	Long tons. 20 2,521 3,230 1,168	Long tons. 2,872 3,814 1,232	Perct. 12.8 27.7 51.4 8.1	Peret. 2.6 7.2 80.3 9.9	Peret. 36.3 46.5 16.9	Per ct. 86.8 48.2 15.5
Total	9,885	4,694	6,939	7,918	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Jute and jute butts— British East In- dies Other countries	100,756 5,278	80, 444 2, 696	99,780 8,542	109,685 3,010	95. 0 5. 0	96. 8 3. 2	92.1 7.9	97.3 2.7
Total	106,033	83,140	108,322	112,695	100.0	100.0	100.0	16 0. 0
Manila fiber— Philippine Is- lands Other countries	49, 285 403	50, 587 494	78, 809 82	76,300 46 5	99. 2 . 8	99.0 1.0	99.9	90.4
Total	49,688	51,061	78, 892	76,766	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sisal grass— Mexico Other countries	195,086 20,461	175,884 9,880	220,994 7,616	130, 861 12, 546	90. 5 9. 5	94.7 5.3	96.7 3.3	91.3 8.7
Total	215,547	185,764	228,610	143,407	100.0	100,0	100.0	100.0
Bruits: Bananas— British West Indies Central American States and British Honduras	Runches. 15, 677, 191 25, 432, 760	Bunches. 11,957,985	Bunches. 4,927,435	Bunches. 2, 191, 516 26, 211, 939	32. 2 52. 1	29. 1	13.4 66.5	6. 3 75. 6
Cuba	2,354,395 2,271,866 2,947,380	22,470,600 2,708,624 1,567,461 2,386,965	2,859,021 2,710,047 1,817,552	26,211,939 2,184,110 3,578,500 495,114	4.8 4.7 6.2	6.6 3.8 5.8	7.8 7.4 4.9	6.3 10.3 1.5
Total	48,683,592	41,091.585	36,754,704	34,661,179	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nuts: Walnuts— Austria-Hunga y. France. Italy. Turkey (Asiatic). Other countries.	Pounds. 514,455 19,020,143 6,275,717 1,712,209 9,673,204	Founds. 18,716,938 6,440,934 16,135 8,271,831	Pounds. 22,443,477 8,489,385 5,926,072	Pounds. 18,302,907 7,822,612 12,599,843	1. 4 51. 1 16. 9 4. 6 26. 0	56.0 19.3 .0 24.7	60. 9 23. 0 16. 1	47. 3 20. 2
Total	37, 195, 728	33,445,838	36,858,994	38, 725, 362	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Oil, vegetable: Olive, salad— France Italy Other countries	Gallons. 949,858 4,319,567 948,135	Gallone. 802,002 4,864,388 1,044,487	Gallons. 891,769 4,700,412 1,632,250	Gallons. 726,771 2,882,535 3,923,843	15.3 69.5 15.2	12. 0 72. 5 15. 5	12. 3 65. 1 22. 6	9.7 38.3 52.0
Total	6, 217, 560	6,710,967	7,224,431	7, 533, 149	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Soya-bean oil— Japan United Kingdom. Other countries	Pounds. 6,425,306 1,453,932 8,481,214	Pounds. 5,471,911 906,134 12,828,476	Pounds. 70,384,049 187,722 27,547,924	Pounds. 67, 169, 454 95, 520, 781	39.3 8.9 51.8	28.5 4.7 66.8	71.7 28.1	41.3
Total	16,360,452	19,206,521	98, 119, 695	162,690,235	100.0	100. 0	100.0	100.0
				, 			1	

Table 209.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1914-1917—Continued.

		Quan	tity.		P	er cent	of tota	L
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.			Year ending	June 30—				
	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (preL)
VEGETABLE MATTER— continued.			·					
Opium: Turkey (Asiatic and European) United Kingdom Other countries	Pounds. 383, 489 39, 372 32, 339	Pounds. 440,529 38,258 5,240	Pounds. 27,883 62,665 56,110	Pounds. 599 65,356 20,857	Per ct 83.2 8.6 8.2	.Perct 91.0 7.9 1.1	Peret 19.0 42.7 38.3	.Per d 75. 24.
Total	445, 200	484,027	146,658	86,812	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.
Seeds: Flaxseed or linseed— Argentina	Bushels.	Bushels. 8,927,542	Bushels. 11,468,039	Bushels. 5,009,441		36.8	78.1	40.
Belgium British India Canada United Kingdom.	3 50 8,647,168 6,010	39,990 6,629,860	3,094,735	122,596 7,014,573	.0 .0 99.9	62. 2	21. 1	1. (56. (
Other countries	4	68,823	116,456	247,378	.0	.6	.8	2.0
Total	8,653,235	10,666,215	14,679,233	12,393,988	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Grass seed— Clover— Canada France Germany Italy	Pounds. 5,741,516 15,402,710 4,200,141 44,000	Pounds. 1,525,080 18,879,326 336,575 343,546	Pounds. 1,620,609 26,964,867 44,000 10,300,153 2,910,132	Pounds. 5,654,366 10,037,945 600 2,479,188	19. 1 51. 2 14. 0 . 1 15. 6	6.3 78.2 1.4 1.4 12.7	3.9 64.4 .1 24.6 7.0	31. 55.
Other countries Total	4,719,282 30,107,649	3,072,184 24,156,711	41,839,761	18, 172, 159	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.
Sugar, raw, cane:	4,926,606,243		5 150 851 544	4 880 007 208	97.3	88.3	91.5	87.
Dutch East Indies. Philippine Islands. Santo Domingo South America Other countries	1	4,784,888,157 22,235 326,842,296 86,188,211 120,869,986 99,819,597	32,941 217,190,825 107,503,110 118,659,613 37,034,733	21,813 267,891,954 114,367,301 158,107,460 120,101,434	2.3 .1 .2 .1	6.0 1.6 2.2 1.9	3.9 1.9 2.1 .6	5. 2. 3. 2.
Total	5,061,564,621	5, 418, 630, 482	5, 631, 272, 766	5,329,587,360	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.
Tea: Canada China East Indies Japan. United Kingdom Other countries	3,112,383 20,139,342 10,551,735 41,913,273 14,077,601 1,336,481	3, 446, 615 23, 100, 548 12, 645, 303 43, 869, 012 12, 869, 968 1, 056, 496	2, 600, 705 20, 422, 700 14, 855, 825 52, 359, 526 19, 066, 241 560, 938	3, 100, 459 19, 810, 428 13, 138, 534 52, 418, 963 13, 857, 721 978, 305	3.4 22.1 11.6 46.0 15.4 1.5	3.6 23.8 13.0 45.2 13.3 1.1	2.4 18.6 13.5 47.7 17.3	3. 19. 12. 50. 13.
Total	91, 130, 815	96, 987, 942	109, 865, 935	103, 364, 410	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.
Tobacco, leaf: Wrapper— Netherlands Other countries	5,846,504 246,283	7,061,943 179,235	4,963,761 106,547	2, 426, 322 1, 515, 614	96. 0 4. 0	97. 5 2. 5	97. 9 2. 1	61. 38.
Total	6,092,787	7,241,178	5,070,308	3,941,936		100.0	!	100.
Other leaf— Cuba Germany Turkey (Asiatic). Turkey (Euro	26, 617, 545 456, 445 15, 616, 543	21,987,848 91,578 6,714,654	23,946,363	23, 417, 539	49. 3 8 28. 9	57. 1 17. 4	55.8	55.
pean) Other countries	8,502,742 2,821,450	5,950,915 3,778,555	19,890 18,976,774	10,051 18,748,371	15. 7 5. 3	15. 4 9. 9	44. 2	44.
Total	54,014,725	38, 523, 550	42,943,027	42, 194, 411	100. 0			100.

Table 209.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1914-1917.—Continued.

		Quai	ntity.		` 1	Per cent of total.			
Article, and country to which consigned.			Year ending	June 30					
	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	1914	1915	1916	1917 (prel.)	
FOREST PRODUCTS.									
India rubber, crude: BelgiumBrazilCentral American	Pounds. 11,005,246 40,641,305	Pounds. 1,902,370 48,753,670	Pounds. 54,968,227	Pounds. 56,818,966	Perct. 8.3 30.8	Per ct. 1.1 28.3	Per ct. 20. 5	Per ct.	
States and British Hundoras East Indies France Germany	565, 487 16, 597, 105 2, 629, 287 7, 079, 280	790, 368 27, 898, 683 685, 699 739, 105	1,313,454 125,532,067 509,675	1,347,931 181,431,578 616,772	.4 12.6 2.0 5.4	.5 16.2 .4	46.9 .2	54.	
Mexico	641,029 556,560 48,279,674 4,000,789	1,827,912 4,130,624 75,168,236 10,171,761	8,261,507 2,773,656 72,459,408 6,957,563	1,488,636 3,719,703 78,742,217 9,207,908	36.6 3.0	1. 1 2. 4 43. 7 5. 9	1. 2 1. 0 27. 1 2. 6	1. 1 23. 6 2. 9	
Total	131, 995, 742	172,068,428	267, 775, 557	333, 373, 711	100.0	100. 0	100.0	100.0	
Wood: Cabinet woods, ma- hogany— British Africa Central American States and Brit-	M feet. 12,888	M feet. 6,941	M feet. 6,888	M feet. 12,530	18. 3	16. 4	17.3	29. 8	
ish Honduras Mexico United Kingdom Other countries	23,356 10,381 18,289 5,556	17,955 8,119 5,918 3,392	10,450 8,453 7,248 6,816	12,701 8,229 1,360 7,960	33. 1 14. 7 26. 0 7. 9	42. 4 19. 2 14. 0 8. 0	26. 2 21. 2 18. 2 17. 1	29. 7 19. 2 3. 2 18. 6	
Total	70,470	42, 325	39,855	42,780	100. 0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Boards, planks, deals, and other sawed lumber—									
Canada Other countries	892, 833 36, 040	908, 663 30, 659	1,180,018 38,050	1, 155, 916 19, 264	96.1 3.9.	96. 7 3. 3	96.9 3.1	98.4 1.6	
Total	928,873	939, 322	1,218,068	1, 175, 180	100. 0	100. 0	100.0	100.0	
Wood pulp: Canada	Pounds. 524, 251, 441 149, 171, 214 181, 255, 024 265, 457, 874 18, 591, 642	Pounds. 660, 656, 640 83, 119, 680 200, 934, 720 350, 183, 680 22, 050, 560	Pounds. 790, 997, 760 237, 440 115, 978, 240 225, 955, 520 2, 618, 560	Pounds. 992,617,920 99,957,760 458,805,760 15,442,560	46.0 13.1 15.9 23.3 1.7	50. 2 6. 3 15. 3 26. 6 1. 6	69. 6 . 0 10. 2 19. 9	63. 4 6. 4 29. 3	
Total						100.0		100.0	

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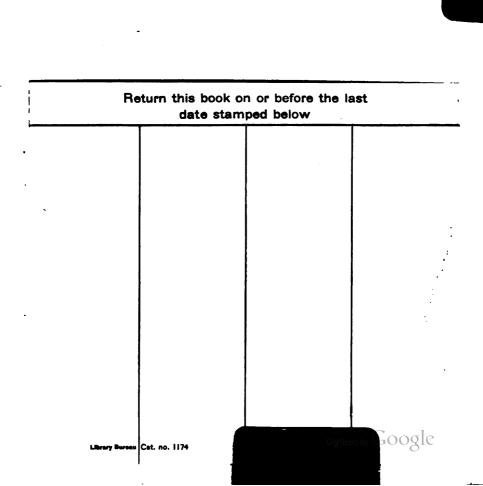
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